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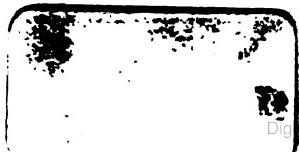
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REPORTS

COMMUNICATED TO THE

LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD,

BY

HER MAJESTY'S SECRETARY OF STATE FOR
FOREIGN AFFAIRS;

WITH

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

BY

ANDREW DOYLE, ESQ.,

LOCAL GOVERNMENT INSPECTOR.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.



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SIR,

June 22nd, 1874.

IN compliance with the wish of the late President of the Local Government Board I have arranged for publication, with some introductory observations, the several Reports upon Foreign Poor Laws that have been communicated to the Board by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. I am very sensible how imperfectly I have carried out Mr. Stansfeld's instructions; but the pressure of official duties has left me little time to do more, even with the aid most obligingly afforded to me by my colleague, Mr. J. S. Davy, than to put these Reports in order, and to direct attention in some prefatory remarks to the general character of the information contained in them, my object being simply to indicate the leading principles of the poor law system of the several countries that are referred to in the Reports, and to notice the most striking points of agreement or contrast with our own.

As it has been my duty to read and arrange the whole of these Reports, I may be allowed to record my opinion of their very great value, and to express my belief that through no other agency than our diplomatic and consular service would it have been possible to collect such a mass of information upon such a subject as that for which the Local Government Board is indebted to the English Foreign Office.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

ANDREW DOYLE,

Local Government Board

The Right Honourable

Inspector.

G. Slater Booth, M.P.,

&c. &c. &c.

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INTRODUCTION.

AT no period since the passing of the Act of 1834 for amending the English poor laws has the subject of their administration occupied public attention so much as it has done within the last few years. Controversies, supposed to have been long since set at rest, upon the principle on which the relief of the poor should be organised have been revived and are now carried on with all the zeal, though happily without the heat and partizanship, that characterized such discussions half a century ago. Public interest in the subject seems to increase from year to year, and indications may be observed in the discussions and proceedings of various conferences and societies of a very considerable modification of opinion upon some of the most important principles involved in our present system of poor law administration.

With a view to aid the consideration of questions of the deepest social interest the late President of the Local Government Board, adopting the example of the first Poor Law Commissioners, sought to collect from foreign countries such information as could be obtained upon the principles of poor law legislation, the practice of administration, and the results upon the condition of the populations of the several countries in Europe, in the United States, and in the British Colonies. For this purpose a series of questions suggested by the Local Government Board were transmitted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Lord Granville, to English Diplomatic and Consular Agents.

The Society for Organising Charitable Relief and Repressing Mendicity had also addressed, through the Foreign Office, a series of questions as to the mode of administering charity in foreign countries. When replies to these two separate sets of questions were received, it was found that they comprised information of very much the same character. Indeed in only a few European countries does any practical distinction exist between poor law relief and charity organisation. From some countries the only information furnished consists of untranslated and undigested reports of various local societies. These, when they possess sufficient interest, will be referred to in the course of this brief introduction to the most valuable series of reports upon foreign

poor laws that has been collected since the publication of similar reports by the Poor Law Commissioners in 1834.

It may be thought that the interest of these reports has been anticipated by the publication of Mr. Emminghaus upon the same subject. The reports now printed, however, will be found to contain a great deal of important information, not to be found in the pages of Emminghaus, or indeed elsewhere. The compilation of Emminghaus is undoubtedly of great value, but many of its reports are deficient in the special information that would interest English readers who may wish to compare our system of poor laws with that of foreign countries.

The origin of the existing system of poor laws in this kingdom and in foreign countries has more than a merely historical interest. Agencies appear to be now at work, although no doubt in a greatly mitigated form, in some respects similar to those that led in most European countries to the enactment of poor laws, whether as measures of police or of legal charity. A great deal of speculation, which, however learned or ingenious, is of little practical value, has been expended in tracing English poor laws to some remote source with which they have in fact no real connection.

While recognizing the fact that the Act of Elizabeth was intended for the protection of society rather than for the relief of the poor, Mr. Emminghaus, in the very interesting introduction to his book, assumes, as many writers had assumed before him, that a state provision for the poor was the compensation for the suppression of monasteries. It was natural, he observes that a "policy of repression should be chiefly pursued in those countries in which the Reformation was most successful." But a "policy of repression" was adopted in this country long antecedent to the Reformation, and prevailed, in the most odious forms, in countries in which the Reformation never took root. The laws of Athelstane and Canute are gravely referred to by an English writer of authority as being "in some respects similar to the poor laws of the present day." The provision that "everyone be brought into a hundred and into borh (surety), and that the borh lead him to every plea," appears to be accepted as the origin of settlement. By other writers later laws are referred to, before the reign of Richard II., as containing the germ of our English system. If by a poor law we are to understand a law the object of which is simply to make provision for the relief of destitution, no trace of such a law is to be found earlier than the somewhat doubtful enactment, the 12th of Richard II. The series of statutes

that are sometimes referred to as the foundation of our system of poor laws, so far from being grounded upon interest for the welfare of the poor, were of a character to justify the opinion attributed to the late Mr. Senior, that "they originated in " ignorance, selfishness, and pride," "their origin was an " attempt substantially to restore the expiring system of slavery." They created, or where they did not create they aggravated, pauperism, and having done so, instead of making provision for its maintenance sought to extirpate it by means that, as Dr. Burn observes, "makes this part of English history look like the history " of the savages in America. Almost all severities have been inflicted, except scalping." In every country of the system of which we have any record poor laws appear to have the same origin. These institutions, as the late Mr. Coode has observed, "are every " where of too distinct and recent an origin to be traceable to any of " the primitive laws or customs of those people who have descended " from one common race. They may be clearly traced in the " legislation of every European country in the application of " similar remedies to evils of the same character. There never " was a time or place," the same authority remarks, "in which " there were not to be found men anxious to avoid labour and " yet to live in ease and enjoyment. There never was a time"— nor, he might have added, was there ever a country—"in " which other men were not, from their sympathy, from their " superstition, and from their fears, ready with their bounty " to assist the necessitous, and liable to be imposed upon and " intimidated according as the beggar was crafty or bold. " No community is so poor as not to suffer in some degree " from the existence of a body of idle and worthless persons subsisting profligately on the benevolence, the folly, or the fears of " its members." To the inordinate growth of this body of idle and worthless persons, and to apprehension of the dangers with which society was menaced by their lawless conduct, may be ascribed those repressive enactments against mendicancy which are often referred to as the foundation of poor laws wherever they exist.

There is a revolting monotony in the earlier history of this "policy of repression" in all civilised countries. It reads indeed more like the record of reprisals of savage tribes upon captured enemies than the efforts of Christian communities to correct evils for the existence of which they were themselves responsible. Without referring to the barbarous legislation of earlier reigns, we find that only a few years before the passing of the famous 43rd of Elizabeth, the 14th of the same sovereign, after reciting that "all parts

“ of this realm of England and Wales be presently with rogues, vagabonds, and sturdy beggars exceedingly pestered, by means whereof daily happeneth in the same realm horrible murders, thefts, and other great outrage,” it is enacted that all persons defined in the Act as rogues and vagabonds or sturdy beggars are for the first offence to be grievously whipped and burned to the gristle of the right ear with a hot iron of the compass of an inch about; for the second they are to be deemed felons; for the third to suffer death as felons, without benefit of clergy. Strype tells us that in every county of England there were from 300 to 400 able-bodied vagrants who lived by theft and rapine. According to the statement of Harrison “three score and twelve thousand great thieves, petty thieves, and rogues” were hanged in the reign of Henry VIII. During the earlier years of the reign of Elizabeth the annual executions were about 400. In Harrison’s phrase “rogues were trussed up apace; there was not one year commonly wherein 300 or 400 of them were not devoured and eaten up by the gallows in one place and other.” The laws enacted in various European countries for the repression of mendicancy bear the impress of the same merciless spirit. In Spain as early as 1351 a beggar was liable, by a general ordinance of Don Pedro, to 40 lashes for a first offence of seeking alms, to 60 for the second, and for any subsequent offence could be punished at the discretion of the magistrates. Still more severe were the municipal laws of several cities. In Breviesca any private individual might seize any mendicant who solicited alms, and was entitled to the questionable privilege of employing him for a month without wages. By an edict of the municipality of Toledo a beggar caught *flagrante delicto* received 50 lashes and was banished from the city; if he returned his ears were cropped and he was again banished, while for the second return this ordinance prescribes the punishment of death. In 1350 begging was prohibited in France under pain of flogging and the pillory for the first offence, burning with a hot iron on the forehead and banishment for the second. In 1532, by an edict of the parliament of Paris, beggars might be chained in couples and employed in cleansing the sewers. In 1536 confirmed mendicants were transported. In 1547 Henry II. rendered male beggars liable to the galley and women to flogging and banishment. In later times, by a decree of Louis XIV. female beggars were banished, males were flogged and if the offence were repeated sent to the galley; while as late as 1777 the same punishment was awarded for the crime of not having worked for a period of six months, being without ostensible

means of subsistence. An ordinance of 1773 rendered a beggar in Dresden liable to be flogged, imprisoned, and have a block attached to his leg. A law of April 15, 1790, punishes mendicancy with imprisonment and flogging. Similar severity marked the earlier legislation against mendicancy in Hamburg, Gustrow, and most of the Swiss Cantons, while solitary confinement in a penitentiary was the lot of the convicted beggar in Copenhagen. The machinery for giving effect to these laws was not less harsh. The activity of police was stimulated by head-money for captured beggars; the giver of alms in countries in which no provision was made for the relief of destitution was punished as was the recipient. In most European countries laws of settlement more strict than even the strictest of our English laws bore evidence to the extent and aggravated character of the pauperism against which they were directed. Although right of domicile might give no right to relief, yet in all cases in which that, the most usual form of settlement, was obtained by a fixed period of residence, every device was adopted to defeat any attempt by a stranger to complete the requisite term of dwelling. Hirings were, as in this country, for periods within the prescribed limits. Evidence was required from new comers of ability to maintain themselves for a certain period independently of their earnings. Imprudent marriages were effectually prevented by being absolutely prohibited unless the contracting parties could give evidence of ability to support a family.

The uniform character of such laws points plainly to their having been adopted as remedies for evils of a similar character. The injustice, however, as well as the danger of prohibiting and punishing mendicancy and restricting the circulation of labour, without at the same time making provision for the relief of the destitution that such legislation must necessarily produce, had become so apparent that "poor laws" in some form or other were at an early period adopted in the legislation of nearly all European countries.

Mr. Senior in his book upon foreign poor laws classifies the Reports published in 1834 as of countries that "adopted the English " principle of acknowledging in every person a right to be supported by the public," and, countries in which such "right" was not acknowledged. It is not quite accurate to speak of the English system as giving a "right" to relief; it is still less accurate to say that such a principle has been adopted in the legislation of European countries. The English law imposes upon certain authorities the duty of relieving destitution, and will, under

certain circumstances, punish the neglect of that duty. But the applicant for relief can under no circumstances claim it as a "right," cannot enforce it by any process of law or recover for the withholding of it as he could if a legal "right" existed! It may not perhaps be easy to distinguish the effect of imposing an obligation to relieve from the result of giving a legal "right" to relief. We know in fact that under our system a right is assumed to exist, is peremptorily asserted by the applicant, and is tacitly recognised by the administrator. So far, however, is it from being true that such a "right" is admitted in the legislation of foreign countries, that on the contrary it will be found that the apprehension of its being asserted is the main ground upon which the levy of a compulsory tax for the relief of the poor is opposed in most foreign countries. Foreign writers, French writers especially, from M. Naville to M. Thiers, warn their countrymen against the danger of imposing a special tax for the relief of destitution; upon the ground that its existence would lead inevitably and logically to the recognition of the "right of every destitute person to be supported by the public," that is, as they contend, to the recognition of the principle of communism. "Le malheureux," says M. Thiers, "que nous rencontrons sur notre chemin, qui touche notre cœur, dont la vue nous arrache un sacrifice, n'a cependant pas le droit de nous forcer à le secourir. Ce malheureux est un objet sacré; dans les ingénieuses paraboles du Christianisme, c'est peut-être un ange qui s'est caché sous la forme d'un malheureux pour mettre les vertus à l'épreuve; mais s'il voulait nous contraindre à venir à son secours, nous extorquer ce que nous sommes portés à lui donner, ce ne serait plus un être sacré mais un malfaiteur." Commenting on this view M. Bechard says, "L'assistance que l'indigent n'a pas le droit d'exiger l'état ne peut pas l'imposer." For principles that are accepted as the groundwork of English poor laws French writers can find a parallel only in those enunciated to the Convention by such economists as Barrère. There is in truth no danger of which foreign legislation appears to be more apprehensive, especially in these days, than the recognition of any "right" of working men to be relieved or even to have work found for them when destitute. They are relieved, it is true, and work is found for them in pressing emergencies, but always with the reservation that such aid is given not of right but of charity. French legislators at least are fully sensible of what M. Prudhon means when he says, "Donnez-moi le droit au travail et je vous cède la droit de propriété."

In referring to the Reports now published, the classification that will probably be found most convenient will be:—

1. Of countries in which there exists a special tax for the relief of pauperism.
2. In which voluntary contributions are assisted by grants from local administration, or from the state.
3. In which the relief of the poor is left altogether to voluntary agency.

This classification, which, with some modification, is that adopted by Emminghaus, is necessarily very general, and under the second head comprises countries in which there exists very great difference in the systems of poor law administration. It will be found, however, sufficiently minute to enable us to examine the different systems both as they affect the countries in which they exist and with relation to each other.

There are only two countries in Europe, England and Denmark, in which the poor are relieved exclusively by a special tax levied for the purpose, and only three, Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden, in which there is a legislative declaration of the "right" of every destitute person to be supported by the state. The Danish law resembles so closely our own in principle, and has led to results so nearly identical, that the examination of it possesses for us a peculiar interest. The means of making such an examination are fortunately tolerably complete. The admirably clear and full report of Mr. Strachey is a most valuable supplement to the information we already possessed in the older reports of Mr. Maegregor, Mr. Browne, and Count Holstein, and enables us to trace with some degree of certainty the operation in another country of laws and a system of administration that differ in no essential respect from the English system before 1834, and in which may be observed many of the defects that with us still survive all our Acts of "amendment." The English and Danish systems may therefore be properly classed and considered together: The right of destitute persons to receive public assistance is asserted by the Danske Lov of Christian V. (1683) and by the Constitutional Chart of 1866. The 84th section of this Chart enacts, "He who is unable to maintain himself and his family, and whose support is not incumbent on any other person, is entitled to receive assistance from the public, subject to the liabilities imposed by law." But these liabilities, Mr. Strachey says, "do not bar a pauper's right to relief." The foundation of the Danish Law therefore has always been the declaration that the pauper has a right to relief.

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The system or rather the machinery of administration has been modified from time to time until it has come to assume a character in many respects resembling that which now exists in England. Unlike, however, the systems of most European countries, including England, the poor law administration of Denmark has never been connected with any religious organization. In that respect it is, as Mr. Emminghaus observes, an exception to the historical uniformity with which the administration of poor relief in other countries has been at some period or other almost exclusively in the hands of the Church. It is only in that respect however that it is an exception. Defects and abuses such as are usually regarded as inherent in, if not peculiar to, systems of Church organisation for the relief of the poor, will be found to prevail under administrations that are, like that of Denmark, purely secular.

Until the year 1867 distinct systems of poor law administration were in operation, (1.) for rural districts, (2.) for towns, and for (3.) Copenhagen. This administration was organised very much according to the old parochial system of England. In the country each parish formed a "poor district"; each kiöbstæd, or market town, was a "poor district," and Copenhagen was a "poor district." The law was administered in each poor district by a board that might be regarded as a Danish counterpart of an English parish vestry. It was composed of the curate, the police-master, one of the chief landowners, and three or four inhabitants nominated for three years. The distinguishing characteristic of the system administered by this executive was the recognition of the *right* of every destitute person to relief. The effects of such a law so administered were thus described by Count Holstein in 1833:—"The dread of poverty is diminished, and he who is half " poor works less instead of more, so that he speedily becomes a " complete pauper. Those who are young and capable of labour " are less economical, always having the poor rate in view as a " resource against want; likewise marriages are contracted with " much less forethought or consideration as to consequences " The morality of the poor man suffers, for he looks upon his " provision as a right for which he therefore need not be thankful, " and the morality of the rich man suffers, for the natural moral " relation between him and the poor man has become completely " severed; there is no place left for the exercise of his bene- " volence; being obliged to give, he gives with reluctance, and " thus is the highest principle of charitable action, christian love, " exposed to great danger of destruction."

This system, with all its evil consequences, appears to have

remained in operation in the rural districts until 1867, when a change was made by which an elected parochial board was substituted for the former *ex officio* constitution, and unions of communes or parishes were authorised, as was the case in this country under the Act of 1834.

The system which prevailed in the towns was essentially the same as in the country. But in 1868, Mr. Strachey observes, "the municipal institutions of Denmark were remodelled, and all poor law business, together with the superintendence of charitable institutions, devolved on the newly established elective town councils. These bodies may conduct the relief of the poor by a standing committee, or otherwise as they may think fit. They may also appoint unpaid overseers to perform the council's duties in this sort. They can make regulations of detail at pleasure.

"The management of poor relief falls properly on the borgmester, who is usually chairman of the section of the council to which such business is attributed. He would often personally administer relief; in some cases he would be assisted by unpaid overseers, as before mentioned, and the course of relief would then be similar to that for the city of Copenhagen."

The system for Copenhagen, as described in Mr. Strachey's report, does not materially differ from that in force in the country districts and in the towns.

From the brief notice of the existing poor houses and workhouses in Denmark it will be seen that they resemble closely the old parish workhouses in England, "the inmates being required to work, but not after a regular programme." In fact there appears to have been as little care under the Danish law to protect society from the consequences of giving to every destitute person a legal right to subsistence as prevailed in our own administration anterior to 1834. The effect of this laxity is thus described by one of the medical officers of Copenhagen, Dr. Ulrik :—"The unpaid city overseers are for the most part small shopkeepers, who, being tied to their counters, have only time and opportunities for the most superficial and illusory examination into the cases brought before them. Sick help is granted with a mischievous facility. It is quite common for families and individuals who are well capable of supporting themselves to be in the receipt of gratuitous medical aid and medicines. The system of casual winter help, and the plan of granting allowances for rent, have had a most demoralising effect, bringing on the parish individuals who can easily support themselves by work. The indiscri-

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 " discouraging the development of sick clubs, and, *præ-tant*, of
 " repressing the growth of provident habits, independence, and
 " self-assertion amongst the labouring classes."

Speaking of the chief workhouse in Copenhagen, the same writer observes that " it is an example of what such an institution ought not to be," and having remarked upon the gross abuses of its administration, he says: " The introduction of the English work-house system is a pressing necessity. An indispensable condition of this system's adoption is, as already observed, the maintenance of a regular discipline, the prohibition of the inmates " *ad libitum* going and coming, and the stoppage of the use of " certain luxuries like tobacco and brandy."

Another writer, Dr. Krebs, quoted by Mr. Strachey, observes of the administration in the country districts,— " In many, perhaps " in most, country places, it is the custom for the mass of the " labourers, and nearly all the lodgers, to demand and receive " medical aid and medicine at the parish expense. The fatal " facility with which such aid is allowed induces numbers of " able-bodied men to make, as it were, an income out of slight or " sham indispositions, old wounds, and the like. When an individual is in receipt of sick help, it follows that he is unable " to work, and thus he acquires an indisputable claim to general " relief."

Although Mr. Strachey has bestowed so much care upon collecting facts for his report, he is unable to furnish any general statistical statement such as would enable me to qualify the remarks elsewhere made upon the slight value that can be attached to such returns. The results of the Danish system of poor relief, as indeed of nearly all the countries to which these reports refer, must be sought, in the opinions of competent observers, in the direction and changes of poor law legislation and in the condition of the class of people who are directly affected by it, rather than in the numbers who are alleged to be in receipt of relief or of the sums assumed to be expended in their maintenance. " As no returns of paupers are transmitted " from country parishes," Mr. Strachey remarks, " or towns to " any central department, the number of persons in Denmark " receiving public relief can only be indirectly, perhaps partially, " ascertained." That the rate of pauperism and of expenditure is very high may be inferred from the opinions already quoted, and from the general dissatisfaction with which the administration of the poor law appears to have been regarded, and which led in

1869 to the appointment by the Crown of a commission composed of large landowners, officials, and professional men. The conclusions come to by this commission, and the nature of the reforms that they recommend, indicate the defects of the law and of its administration in Denmark as clearly as did the report of our own Royal Commission indicate the same results in England in 1884. Mr. Strachey thus briefly sums up the general conclusions of the commission : "The duties of society to the pauper, it is observed, are not exhausted by the mere grant of material assistance ; besides money and money's worth the needy man requires advice and moral support. To take proper effect, aid should be bestowed with accurate attention to times, individuals, degrees. The relief granted through an official public agency does not fulfil these conditions, being mechanical and careless in its application. In Copenhagen, e.g., says the report, it has not been found possible to carry out the existing rules for pauper relief. These are based on right principles, but they assume for their exercise an acquaintance with individual character, means, and circumstances which the relieving officials do not possess. The overseers do not classify and discriminate ; glad to escape the odium which attaches to a too scrutinizing distribution of the public bounty, or from accusations and suspicions of partiality, they fall into habits of blind and wholesale benevolence."

This passage describes with great clearness some of the more striking defects of every poor law system the administration of which is a compromise between voluntary charity and the relief of pauperism. A machinery of investigation and of administering relief which in a general and rough way may be regarded as sufficient for one object, if confined to that, is wholly unsuited to and insufficient for the purpose to which it is more generally applied. The remedy that is suggested by the Danish Commission is one that is theoretically recognized in many foreign systems, and of which for the first time in our history there appears to be a reasonable hope of recognition in England. That which the Charity Organisation Society is so earnestly endeavouring to do by voluntary agency in this country, the Commission recommends to be done by legislation in Denmark. It suggests "the complete separation, by legislative enactment, of public and private charitable functions ; the literal restriction of public relief to such individuals as are actually unable to work, that is to say, to children, aged and weak persons. Settlement to depend no longer on domicile, but exclusively on birthplace. The present terri-

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" torial and administrative arrangements to be maintained. A large development to be given to the workhouse system. Out-door relief to be sparingly allowed. Foreigners who have not been naturalized to have no claim on the parish. Casual foreign paupers to receive temporary local relief. The committee further recommend that the official system be supported by the organization, under legislative sanction, of general voluntary relief. The financial basis of this would consist in the voluntary contributions of the charitably disposed, in certain dotations, which may with propriety be attributed to this object, and in the resources of the parish poor chests (previously described), augmented by certain small fees and fines. Management to be by an elective board. No charity to be dispensed to the recipients of public relief. Investigation of cases to be personal and severe; money to be given in exceptional instances only."

SWEDEN.

The poor law system of Sweden, both in its earlier history and in the recent legislation for its amendment, is, for English readers, as full of interest and instruction as that of any other country in Europe. Emminghaus refers to it as the earliest known system of poor law in Christendom, "a precise and distinct system," he says, "which survived the introduction of Christianity, being contained in the oldest Icelandic law book." August Lammers, however, who contributes the essay on the poor law system of Sweden and Norway to the collection of Emminghaus, appears to think that so far from there being a precise and distinct system, that early law merely fixes the liability of relations within certain degrees. Again, Emminghaus speaks of this system as one from which "the action of the church is entirely excluded." Lammers, upon the other hand, with more justice, connects the early administration of Swedish poor law directly with the state religion, observing that, "the first state law which laid the foundation of public poor relief was the Church Ordinance of 1571, a fact that is very characteristic of Sweden, which even to the present day has kept up a closer connection between church and state than any Protestant country,—such as among Catholic countries,

Spain only has maintained." Although this close connection existed long anterior to the Reformation, as it survived it to our own day, yet it is wholly incorrect to allege, as Lammers does, that the "lægd" relief by boarding out, or "out-quartering" as it has been termed, "received its first sanction, not from the state nor from the civil community, but from the church." This peculiar form of relief, which is the counterpart, if not the

origin, of the "roundsman" system of England, though it existed to some extent in Denmark as well as in Sweden, will be more properly referred to in a brief notice of the poor law system of Norway, of which it is mainly characteristic. It is merely necessary to observe here that it appears to have originated in the state of society of a very thinly peopled agricultural country, in which relief, if granted at all, would almost necessarily be in kind, that is in fact in "board and lodging," of which each farmer in succession bore his share. Whatever may have been the origin of the Swedish poor law, it undoubtedly remained in close connection with the religion of the state, and continued to bear the fruit that is the invariable product of engrafting "charity" upon a system of strictly legal relief. If the monastic system be responsible for all the evils that Lammers attributes to it, the condition neither of society nor of the poor appears to have been improved by the mere transfer of the heritage of the distressed and the right of dealing with it from one church to another, unaccompanied as this transfer was by any more enlightened method of poor relief. "What the crown gives to "the hospitals is consumed by the managers, and the poor "themselves are driven about worse than dogs," was the declaration of Gustavus Adolphus quoted by Lammers.

The system of poor laws at present in force in Sweden is established by the statutes of 1871, a translation of which is annexed to the interesting report of Mr. Nassau Jocelyn. These statutes constitute "the Poor Law Amendment Act" of Sweden, are founded in a great measure upon the same principles as our law of 1834, and are designed to remedy evils of very much the same character. They are the result of inquiries instituted by a committee or royal commission appointed so far back as 1809, and whose labours have been resumed from time to time until their final report, upon which the existing law is founded, was presented in 1839. Writing in 1833 of the system of poor relief then in force in Sweden, the English representative at that time, Mr. Bloomfield, says, "the number of poor has increased in proportion to population;" and in the report from Stockholm it is observed, "the main defect of the charitable institutions" (that is the poor law institutions) "is the very imperfect control over the application of their funds, the parish not being accountable for their distribution to any superior authority. This is so much felt that new regulations are contemplated for bringing parish affairs more under the inspection of a central board. Another great evil is that each parish manages its affairs quite independently

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" of any other, and frequently in a totally different manner.
 " Again, parishes are not consistent in affording relief; they often
 " receive and treat an able-bodied impostor (who legally has no
 " claim on the parish) as an impotent or sick person, whilst many
 " of the latter description remain unsupplied." * * * " The
 " Swedish artisan is neither so industrious nor so frugal as
 " formerly; he has heard that the destitute able-bodied are in
 " England supported by the parish; he claims similar relief, and
 " alleges his expectation of it as an excuse for prodigality or
 " indifference to saving." Then, after referring to the enormous
 increase of pauperism and expenditure, the report goes on,—
 " That the case was otherwise in Sweden formerly, is proved by
 history. Botin says that a laborious abhorrence of idleness
 " and fear of poverty was the cause why indigent and destitute
 persons could be found, but no beggars. *Each family sustained*
 " *its destitute and impotent, and would have deemed it a shame to*
 " *receive support from others.*" There is a very close resemblance
 between the enactments that are designed to remedy this state of
 things and the main provisions of the English Poor Law Amend-
 ment Act. In both, parishes were made primarily responsible
 for the support of their own poor. Unions of parishes may be
 formed as in England. These unions may be divided into
 districts, each district of the union being chargeable with its own
 poor. Should any district become charged with an undue pro-
 portion of relief, a contribution in aid is given by the central union.
 The division of a union into districts is determined by a majority
 of votes of ratepayers, and is subject to confirmation or rejection
 by the governor. The division of a union into districts lasts for
 a period of five years, when it may be revised or repealed. This
 provision of the Swedish law accords in principle with a sugges-
 tion that has been recently discussed at some boards of guardians
 and conferences of guardians in England.

The conditions upon which relief is given under the Swedish
 law of 1871 appear to be more stringent than in any other
 country in Europe. Under no other system is relief to able-
 bodied statutorily prohibited, for such appears to be the effect
 of section 3 of the statutes, notwithstanding the qualification of
 the preceding section. It is further enacted, by section 35 of the
 statutes, that "every poor board shall possess the authority of
 " guardians and the right of mastership over every person who
 " is wholly and permanently maintained by its union, and the
 " right of mastership over every person who either enjoys
 " for himself any other kind of poor relief, or whose wife or child

"that is a minor is wholly and permanently maintained;" and this "right of mastership shall continue as long as each poor relief is administered." So the "right of mastership" extends over all persons who, through idleness or indifference, shall allow any members of their family to become chargeable, and over the parent of any child that may be arrested for begging. The machinery of administration resembles closely that adopted in England under the provisions of the Act of 1834. In the rural districts, although every parish shall constitute, as every town or borough possessing its own communal administration, an independent poor union, union of parishes is allowed by a resolution of the majority of ratepayers. Subject to certain restrictions, every poor union shall determine its poor relief in the manner best adapted to the local peculiarities of the neighbourhood. The administrative body, or as we should say the board of guardians, is constituted, as nearly as the different circumstances of the country allow, as it is in England; the rector of the parish, however, being in rural districts the only ex-officio member of the board. The functions, too, of these boards are very much of the same character. "His Majesty's governor" stands in the place of a local government board, and although considerable latitude appears to be allowed to the local authorities, yet it is within limits that are strictly defined. The regulations which the local authority is empowered to make are subject to approval by the governor. The prohibition of relief to able-bodied, the control or "mastership" that is given to guardians over the labour and the property of the recipient of relief, the liability imposed upon employers generally, so that their servants as work-people may not become chargeable during the term of their engagements, the lien which guardians have upon subsequent earnings until the cost of relief be refunded, the severe enactments against mendicancy,—these are all so many checks upon the injudicious exercise of that "discretion" which is so highly prized and so greatly abused by local administrative bodies. While the English poor law is and ever has been essentially a law for the repression of pauperism, Swedish legislation shares with that of many other European countries the credit of aiming at its prevention. It will be observed, for example, how, under the French system, the object constantly kept in view is to afford the humbler classes such indirect aid as may not only enable them but induce them to shift for themselves. So in other European countries, while a great deal is left to voluntary charity, more or less efficiently organised, very little appears to be expected from poor law

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administration solely. To other agencies the care of the deserving poor is more generally committed. In the Swedish Statutes it is declared, "every poor union should exert itself in the establishment of houses of labour for those who are under the guardianship of the poor board, and also endeavour, by the establishment of savings banks and mutual relief associations or by other suitable measures, to obviate as far as possible the necessity for future poor relief." That a great deal must be done through the agency here indicated, may be fairly inferred from even the imperfect statistical information that Mr. Jocelyn has been able to collect.

At the close of the year 1865 the population of Sweden was 4,114,141 persons. In the course of that year the pauperism, according to the official return, was 3·6 per cent. only, that is to say,—

PERMANENT POOR.

INDOOR.		OUTDOOR.		CHILDREN. (Indoor and Out.)	
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
9,979	8,628	7,908	18,409	10,771	10,492

Total of all classes, 147,788.

Speaking of this return, the last official return furnished from the Statistical Department of Stockholm, Herr Lammers suggests that the wives and families of those in receipt of casual relief are probably omitted. This most likely is so, and would of course very materially effect the value of any inference that might be drawn from such figures. Taking them however as they stand, the returns suggest some observations that deserve attention, not only with reference to the pauperism but also as to the adoption of the permission to combine parishes into unions.

It appears that in the 24 provinces in 1865 there were 2,052 undivided unions; 469 divided into districts, the number of such districts being 3,047. The corresponding numbers for 1,861 would be,—undivided unions 2,034; divided into districts 465; number of districts 3,428. It would thus appear that the division into districts has not made progress, having indeed slightly declined during the four years. But the population not being enumerated by provinces we are unable to determine the proportion of

pauperism in the unions that are undivided or of those which are divided into many or into few districts. Such a comparison would throw some light upon the effects of administration that is nearly parochial compared with that of large combinations or unions. Making every reasonable allowance for the defect in the return which Lammers suggests, the per-cent-age of official pauperism would be low, certainly not reaching five per cent. In the absence, however, of a perfectly accurate return of pauperism we have for Sweden, as for some other countries, another return that is in some respects of more value, namely, the amount actually expended in the relief of pauperism.

The total expenditure for the relief of the poor in 1865 was in round numbers 219,000*l.* (the exact sum was 218,636*l.*) The total number relieved, indoor and outdoor, permanent and casual, was as nearly as may be 148,000 (the exact number was 147,788). This would give the amount of relief for each person for the year at something less than 30*s.* When we consider that no fewer than 55,000 persons were "permanently" relieved, of whom about 13,000, exclusive of children, were "indoor," we must assume with Lammers that the amount given in kind is altogether excluded from the amount stated as the total expenditure in relief. Indeed I apprehend it may be safely assumed that in Sweden, as in most other European countries, relief in kind is the rule and in money the exception. In Denmark, Sweden, and Norway that mode of relief accords better with the character and habits of the people, as well as with the material condition of the country. It is illustrated by the system of "out-quartering"—the "lægd"—which has always prevailed more or less in all these countries. If we had before us the "regulations" for the administration of relief in the several "unions" or "districts," the framing of which is entrusted by the statutes to the discretion of the several boards, we should no doubt find that, as in most other European countries, by far the largest proportion of the relief given was in the necessaries of life. To this practice England is a striking exception. Although the difficulty of giving effect to the rule is often urged as an objection to its adoption, yet more frequently the objection is founded upon the assumption that the form of the relief should be that in which it may be most agreeable to the pauper to receive it. Indeed quite recently at a "conference" of representative guardians that I attended, in reply to a suggestion that relief should be more generally given in kind, one of the representatives present, a clergyman and I believe an ex-officio guardian of his union, declared emphatically that a pauper had as much right to expend as he might think fit the relief that he received from the

union as a working man the wages that he earned by his labour, an opinion that appeared to be received with general favour, an exception however being a French friend whom curiosity had induced to accompany me to the conference, and who seemed to be reminded of the views of his communistic countrymen.

It is too soon to form an opinion as to the effects of the new statutes which were not promulgated until the latter end of 1871. The chief defects of the system which these statutes are intended to replace were, as stated by Mr. Jocelyn, that it "did not provide sufficiently stringent measures for the suppression of mendicity and imposture, while it was often necessary to unduly strain its meaning to meet the cases of the really deserving and indigent paupers." For the suppression of mendicity and imposture the new statutes certainly appear to be sufficiently stringent, and if regulations in conformity with the suggestions of the statutes are made and carried into effect by the several poor boards, whether of unions or of divided districts, the new statutes of Sweden would appear to be admirably adapted to meet the main object that should be kept in view in all poor law legislation. But for the relief of that mass of "poverty" that in every country should be carefully distinguished from its "pauperism," Sweden will have to rely upon a considerable development of those voluntary institutions that are referred to in the 9th section of the statutes, and which are intended "to obviate as far as possible the necessity for future poor relief." Without the co-operation of some well organised system of charity a poor law so stringent as that of Sweden under the new statutes will, like the system they have displaced, be often "unduly strained to meet the cases of really deserving and indigent paupers."

The sources from which funds for poor relief under the old system were derived, and the amounts derived from them during the year 1865, were :—

Calculated in Rixdollars, 1770 to £ sterling.

Revenue of Poor Relief.							Total Expenditure for Relief of Poor.
Arising from Property, Offer-tories, and other private Sources.	Personal Taxes.	Additional Revenue.	Compensation.		Total Income.		
		Arising from Income and Communal Taxes.	Arising from other Sources.	Government Assistance.	Obtained from other Poor Unions.		
682,027	464,699	1,892,368	687,452	53,968	28,015	3,841,894	3,886,862

It will be observed that the expenditure for the year somewhat exceeds the revenue, as it did in the preceding year. Provision for such deficiency is thus made in the new statutes :—

“ In any poor union in which the revenue of real estates and funds set apart by such union for the poor relief, together with the proceeds of fines, church collections, voluntary contributions, and other similar sources of income, shall not be sufficient to meet the charges connected with such relief, a rate for the year, in addition thereto, shall be imposed, not exceeding 50 öre for each male, and 25 öre for each female, of 18 years of age and upwards, who is registered within such union for poll taxation ; but this notwithstanding, a remission of the said rate may be granted to any person whose income is extremely small. Any sum required in addition to the aforesaid shall be raised by taxation in conformity with the general provisions enacted for levying communal rates.”

By a subsequent section of the statutes a provision is introduced into the new law of considerable importance as it affects employers of labour. In some form or other the liability of capital to support the superfluous or incapacitated labour that it may have attracted to particular works or districts is recognised in the laws of many European states. But in none is such liability imposed more distinctly than it is by this enactment of the new Swedish statutes :—

“ If within any rural poor union manufactoryes, ironworks, or mining enterprizees be established on so large a scale as to employ a considerable number of workmen forming households of their own, or if landed proprietors in the rural districts engage farm labourers by the year, or if they allot dwellings or ground for the purpose to so called “ backstugusittare ” * or “ inhyseshjon ”, † likewise forming households of their own ; and provided this be found to occasion a much larger chargeability to the poor union than is met by the rates which, pursuant to the provisions of § 33, shall be paid by the proprietor of such property, the said proprietor shall be bound to pay an additional contribution. With regard to such contribution, an agreement may be entered into between the poor board and the proprietor ; but, provided this be not effected, His Majesty’s governor, at the request of the poor board, and after the statement of the proprietor has been

* “ Backstugusittare,” the tenant of a small cottage without farm land.

† “ Inhysehjon,” a tenant in the house of a farmer or peasant usually employed by the landlord but not in his service.—*Translator’s Notes.*

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received, shall adjudge whether the said proprietor shall pay an extra annual contribution to the poor union, such contribution not to exceed 10 riksdaler for each household aforesaid. If any proprietor shall prefer to assume the responsibility of poor relief connected with such households aforesaid, he shall be permitted to do so, provided he be found capable thereof, and in such case he shall be released not only from the said extra contribution, but also from half the additional taxation provided in § 33. Every agreement or prescription as aforesaid shall remain in force for the term of five years; but this notwithstanding, such agreements or prescriptions may be cancelled or recalled before the lapse of the said term, provided the poor union and the proprietor concerned agree thereto."

The general liability of masters for the relief of servants and labourers is thus provided for by section 4 of the General Provisions:—

"As regards the relief of domestic servants, farm labourers engaged by the year, and also workpeople engaged in manufactures, handicrafts, ironworks, and mines, together with their wives and minor children (resident in their parents' house), *the employers shall be liable for such persons during the term of their engagements, so that they may not become chargeable to the union.*"

A more striking contrast it would be difficult to present than between these reasonable provisions of the Swedish law and the claim set up and successfully maintained some few years since by the boards of guardians of the manufacturing districts of England to have the wages of their partially employed "hands" supplemented by contributions from the poor rates.

To all who are concerned for the improvement of poor laws, the progress of administration in Sweden under the Statutes of 1871 will be a subject of great interest.

NORWAY.

The report of the poor law system of Norway is neither full nor minute. In giving a brief account of it I must avail myself not only of the report of Her Majesty's Consul but of the clear summary from the collection of Emminghaus and included in the translation made at the suggestion of Mr. Bosanquet, the secretary of the Charity Organisation Society, and edited by Mr. Eastwick.

For an account of the lægd, or "out-quartering" system, I shall refer to the project of law presented to the Storthing so far back as the year 1832.

The Norwegian poor law system is distinguished by very minute sub-division of administrative authority. There are no

fewer than 651 poor law districts, of which 57 are urban and 594 rural. (These are exclusive of the saw mills and mining establishments which apparently maintain their own poor.) The districts, numerous as they are, are still further sub-divided into as many sub-divisions as there are members on the commission. This sub-division is made for the purpose of facilitating inspection or supervision with respect to the merits of applications for relief, Each member "has his special beat to attend to." The commission just spoken of is the authority to whom is entrusted the administration of relief in each district. In the country district, the president of the commission is a clergymen, in the towns one of the magistrates. The board or commission is composed, in addition to the president, of seven or eight elected members; four inspectors being attached to each commission. This sub-division for the purpose of inquiry and supervision would seem to supply the great want of other systems, that of England included. Unfortunately details are wanting as to the actual operation and effect in Norway of a regulation that appears to resemble closely the system that prevailed formerly in Hamburg and prevails at present in Elbersfeld.

Although a commission issued in 1829 framed a report upon which two bills for the relief of the poor in town and country were framed, it was not until 1845 that a law was passed "organising public poor relief." Of this system August Lammers says: "This " law gave to every person in case of destitution a legal claim to " relief by the commune or district of the place where he was " born, or where he had lived for at least three years between his " 15th and 63rd birth day. Begging was forbidden. The care " of the poor was placed in the hands of commissioners who, in " conjunction with the local poor law officials, were allowed finally " to impose a tax in money and kind from year to year. In the " country the old institution, the lægd, was retained. The law " also gave the commissioners power to place able-bodied persons " claiming relief in workhouses (this idea was borrowed from " England), but the power was only given at first in the case of " some of the more considerable towns." Relief by lægd or "out-quartering," though extensively adopted in Norway, is not, Lammers states, peculiar to that country, or even to Scandinavia, but was usual in Sweden and Denmark, in the Orkneys and Shetland Islands, in Livonia, in two of the Swiss cantons, Berne and Friburg, and in parts of Southern Germany, as late as 40 years ago. A clear account of this system of lægd, or relief by lodging paupers out, is contained in a bill presented to the Storthing

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in 1882. Section 26 of that bill provides,—“ The main principle “ to be observed everywhere in affording relief is to preserve the “ lægd or out-quartering of the paupers wherever it has existed “ or can be introduced, taking care to avoid the separation of “ families. The regulation of lægd where it has been once “ established among the farms should be as durable and as little “ liable to alteration as possible, so that a fresh arrangement “ should be made only in instances where there exists a con- “ siderable increase or decrease in the number of the paupers “ quartered out, or a marked alteration in the condition of the “ occupiers upon whom they are so quartered. In the event of “ a fresh arrangement it is desirable that the existing paupers “ hitherto provided for should, in as far as may be consistent with “ justice towards the parties to whom they are quartered, “ continue to have ‘lægd’ upon the same farm or farms where “ they have hitherto been relieved. Families not belonging to “ the class of peasants are bound to have paupers quartered upon “ them in lægd in case they cultivate land; however, the overseer “ of the district is competent to grant permission to them, as well “ as to other ‘lægds-ydere,’ to let out the lægd when he finds that “ they are individually unable to provide for the pauper on their “ own lands and the letting out can be effected without any con- “ siderable inconvenience to the latter. When a new regulation of “ lægd takes place or new lægd is established a statement in writing “ of the lægd or out-quartering intended is to be issued by the “ commission, or by the overseer on its behalf, containing the “ name of the pauper to be out-quartered, and the farm or “ farms on which he shall receive ‘lægd;’ and in case it is on “ several, the rotation and for what period on each. In case the “ lægd is to be only during the winter, or during a certain part “ of the year, this likewise is to be stated. In like manner the “ houseless and others who are provided with relief in kind from “ particular farms are to be furnished with a note setting forth “ the quantity the individual has to demand of each farm and the “ time at which he is entitled to demand the same. In default “ of the furnishing these contributions in proper time they are “ to be enforced by execution through the lensmand. In case of “ a report from the superintendent of the lægd of improper con- “ duct on the part of the pauper quartered out, the overseer shall “ give the said offending pauper a severe reprimand;” in case this proves of no effect the offending pauper is liable to imprisonment. “ In case the person with whom a pauper has been quartered out “ do not supply adequate relief or ill-use the pauper so quartered

"upon him, the offending party shall be fined, or in case of ill-usage be imprisoned." Such is, with reference to adult paupers, the system of relief by *lægd*. There is, in addition to this, what is termed the "skole *lægd*," differing somewhat from our system of boarding-out, as the children, instead of being placed with cottagers, were put under the care of a schoolmaster.

The results of the legislation of 1845 do not appear to have been satisfactory. "The law of 1845," says Lammers, "by giving the poor a legal claim to relief and making it consequently the duty of the wealthier classes to pay regular imposts, increased the burden of the latter, whilst the motives to self-dependance in the former were weakened." The Government, sensible of the evil consequences of the law of 1845, totally changed the system in 1863. The "right" to relief was restricted to orphans and persons of unsound mind. The relief even of the sick and aged ceased to be obligatory, and able-bodied men were to be relieved only upon the poor commissioners being satisfied that the cases were of urgent necessity. From returns collected for the first time in 1866 it appeared that during 15 years the whole population had increased only one fifth, while during the same period the pauperism had increased one third and the expenditure had nearly doubled. Under the improved system, however, the pauperism in 1869 was only about 180,000 out of a population of 1,720,500, or about 10½ to every 1,000, while the whole expenditure was 250,700*L*. We are without the means of comparing this pauperism and expenditure with that of an earlier period, the collection of statistics of pauperism having been only recently organised. But the best evidence of the failure of the old system is to be found in the character and extent of the legislative changes that were made in it. The abrogation of the "right" to relief and the prohibition to relieve able bodied were changes of vast importance. Of not less importance was the change made by restricting the control of the poor commission over the public funds. Prior to the year 1863 these commissions "not only had unlimited power over the funds placed at their disposal, but could levy any amount in the shape of poors rates at pleasure." The new law limits the maximum of relief to be rendered and deprives the poor commissions of the power of levying rates *ad libitum*. "They are now bound to render an annual account of their stewardships, and to submit the budget for the coming year to the corporation, who then decide upon the amount that is to be levied and placed at the disposal of the commission."

No information is given either in the report of our consul or in

NORWAY.

Emminghaus as to the sources whence the funds for the relief of the poor are now derived. It probably continues as it was proposed under the Bill of 1832 :—

1. The interest of legacies and other property belonging to the poor :
2. An annual tax (equal to 2s. 6d. sterling) on each hunsmand or cottager and on each man servant, and 6s. on each woman servant :
3. A duty on stills equal to half the duty paid to the state :
4. Penalties directed to be paid to the poor fund :
5. The property left by paupers if they leave no wife or children unprovided for :
6. An annual assessment on the occupiers of land and on all others capable of contributing, such as men servants, clerks, tutors, and pilots.

The direct pressure of such a system of taxation for the relief of the poor, assessed and expended by a virtually irresponsible body, may have greatly promoted the reform in the law under which the pauperism of Norway appears to be now so exceptionally low.

The report of our consul does not allude to the relief by *lægd*. But Lammers says that “recent inquiries show that the peasant “still clings to the *lægd* system in preference to relieving the “poor with money.” “In some places,” he goes on to say, “coin “is still rare and is carefully laid by to pay the general taxes; he “therefore thinks less of giving in kind, and in fact he takes the “old proverb literally that it costs no more to feed one extra “guest.” The peasant too contends against a change of the system, that “to receive a poor guest keeps alive the feeling of “voluntary benevolence, and that to do away with the custom “makes it a mere compulsory affair.” It has been urged, however, that a main protection against the abuse of the system was to be found in the fact that the *lægd* being wholly supported by the *lægd-yder* must be felt as an incumbrance by the farmer. “Many “are the complaints,” Lammers remarks, “against indolent and “impertinent guests.”

**GERMANY
(North).**

The report of Mr. Plunkett, though nominally upon the poor law system of Prussia, comprises in fact a lucid and compressed historical review of the system of the German Confederation. No better introduction could be written to the reports from the several states, in connexion with which it should be carefully read. Like all reports that are written with care, and upon which much

labour has been bestowed, this of Mr. Plunkett is difficult to epitomise.

GERMANY
(North).

Up to the beginning of the last century nothing very definite in the way of poor law legislation had been attempted in any of the states which formed the German empire. Begging and vagrancy were prohibited by laws dating as far back as 1497, 1532, and 1577; and by the last law, communes (*gemeinden*) were bound to support their own poor, to provide hospitals, and to send away strangers. In the matter of settlement the various states appear to have acted more or less in concert; but as regards the relief of the poor, each county and often each commune established a system of its own. Hence arose the complicated and varied systems of poor law administration which prevailed in Germany until the last few years.

In Prussia, and in most of the states which after 1866 formed the North German Confederation, each commune was held responsible for cases of distress arising within its district. No special poor rate was levied except in a few districts as subsidiary to general funds, and the expenses were paid from the communal treasury; but the mode of levying the necessary funds was by no means uniform in the different countries. In some cases a small contribution was exacted from the theatres.

In some places special committees existed having funds for the relief of the poor; but in most instances the administration was in the hands of the communal authorities. The supervision or poor relief was almost universally conducted by committees nominated by the communal council or elected by the inhabitants, but there was the greatest variety in the election, payment, and power of these committees.

Practice and custom had, however, established the almost universal rule that in each state persons who were domiciled in it had a claim to public relief in case of destitution; but owing to the want of a uniform law of settlement, difficulties as to the question of domicile were constantly arising between the various states, and these difficulties gave rise to the convention of Gotha of 1851, and the agreement of Eisenach of 1853. By the convention of Gotha the principles were laid down upon which a state was justified in ejecting a pauper who had no settlement, but no pauper was to be turned out of one state until it was clearly ascertained to what state he belonged. Disputes between states as to the settlement of a pauper were to be settled diplomatically between the governments.

By the agreement of Eisenach it was arranged that a destitute

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sick person was to receive medical assistance from the state in which he happened to be taken ill, and that if he were irremovable the expense of his relief could not be recovered from the state to which he really belonged. The money might, however, be recovered from his relations, and the states agreed to assist one another in this.

In 1867 the Reichstag of the North German Confederation passed the "Law of Free Settlement," by which every German has a right to settle where he pleases without interference from the authorities of the place which he leaves, or those of the place in which he settles. No one can be refused settlement, unless he is a confirmed beggar or vagrant, or is actually destitute. Prospective or possible poverty is no bar to a settlement. But as the length of residence necessary to acquire a legal settlement was still left to the discretion of each state, this law increased the difficulty of deciding on the chargeability of persons who had become destitute. Those states in which a legal settlement could only be obtained by a prolonged residence had an unfair advantage over those where the time required by law was shorter; and finally the Reichstag decided that after a person had attained the age of 24 a residence of two years in a district sufficed to gain a settlement, and an absence of two years sufficed to lose it.

This decision is the basis of the "Law of Relief Domicile" which was passed by the Reichstag on 6th June 1870, and which is now the fundamental law on which the whole system of poor relief in Germany is based. The more minute details of the system are left to the Parliament of each state; the Federal Law merely laying down the principles on which settlement is to be lost or acquired, and on which relief is to be given.

In 1871 "the Supplemental Law" for giving effect to the Federal Law of 1870 with the Prussian dominion was passed. In execution of the article of the Federal Law which enacts that every German is to be treated in every state of a confederation as a native, the Prussian supplementary law says: — "Every German in case of distress has a right to demand of his commune a roof, the absolute necessities of life, medical attendance in case of illness, and in case of death a suitable burial. Relief may be granted by admission to a poor house or hospital, or by allotting work proportioned to the strength of the pauper either in such an institution or out of it. Poor relief institutions are not obliged to pay for any spiritual attendance on paupers." By the Federal Law the whole country is for the purposes of poor relief divided into local unions, consisting of a single property,

of a single commune, or of a union of communes. Of these about 800 were formed in Prussia; legislation as to their constitution and administration, the manner of raising their funds, and the details generally, being left to the Parliament of each state.

The direction of poor relief is by the Prussian Supplementary Law placed in the hands of the communal authorities, who may elect a special relief committee from their own body, but in certain cases including other inhabitants. Where the local union consists of more than one commune, a committee is formed, including at least one member from each district. Where the local union consists of one property, the proprietor is responsible for the proper administration of poor relief within the union.

Every member of a commune is bound, when elected, to serve on the communal relief committee without salary, unless he shows valid cause for exemption. If he refuse to act without good excuse he loses his vote in communal affairs for from three to six years, and is liable to pay one eighth to one quarter higher communal taxes.

In addition to the local unions the Federal Law also constituted provincial unions, whose special duty it is to assist persons who cannot be made chargeable to any particular commune. The Prussian Supplemental Law added six provincial unions to those already in existence, making altogether in the whole kingdom 36. They vary much in size, sometimes consisting of a single town, sometimes including a whole province. Where the provincial union consists of a single town, the administration is left in the hands of the ordinary communal council, otherwise a royal decree prescribes the mode of administration, but as a general rule the provincial government (Berzirks Regierung) is charged with the disposal of the funds. The expenses are borne by different parts of the union in proportion to the direct state taxes collected in them. By the Federal Law institutions for relief which admit members of certain creeds only are not considered as poor law institutions. In Prussia directors of private charitable institutions are bound to state when application is made to them in any special case the amount that they have paid to any individual. In case of non-compliance they may be fined 10 thalers. Certain institutions possessed of endowments for relieving the poor were suppressed by the Federal Law, and their funds allotted to the communes in which they had existed for the purposes of poor relief.

The central government has no direct control over the communal authorities as to their administration of relief. The

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Minister of the Interior has a sum, which amounted in 1871 to over 96,000£., at his disposal, which he distributes to such local unions as may be hard pressed by pauperism, or to deserving persons who may be recommended to him; but by far the larger portion goes to the relief of widows and orphans of soldiers killed in battle.

Every German in distress must in the first instance be relieved by the union in which he falls destitute, but the union to which he is chargeable must defray the expenses of his relief, and in the case of permanent destitution must accept him and pay the expenses of his removal. The expenses are calculated according to the scale of relief adopted by the relieving union, usually 8d. a day for ordinary and 1s. 6d. a day for sick paupers.

Provincial unions pay for paupers with no settlement in a local union, and for those discharged from prisons or asylums, and must supplement the funds of distressed local unions.

In Prussia disputes between unions, and between unions and private individuals, are settled by 14 boards called "domicile deputations" established by royal decree in 1871. Each delegation consists of two members nominated by the King, and three members elected for three years. They investigate all complaints, and are empowered to hold local inquiries, and examine witnesses on oath. The defeated party, besides paying costs, has to pay a fee not exceeding 3l. to meet the expenses of the delegation. Any balance is handed to the provincial unions.

There is an appeal from the judgment of the delegations to the "Federal Office for Domicile" sitting in Berlin. This is a German institution, acting under the Federal Law of 1870. Further, in Prussia in every kreis there is an arbitration board under the presidency of the Landrath. Its decisions are subject to an appeal to the "domicile delegation."

In Germany there is no uniformity in the mode in which relief is administered, as this point is left entirely to the discretion of the various states. As a general rule, however, assistance is given in the form of outdoor relief.

There are no accurate or uniform statistics of pauperism for Germany; an approximate estimate of the number of paupers in Prussia may be formed from the number of persons exempted from paying the classification tax on account of their being paupers in receipt of public charity. In 1860 there were 215,044, or 3·4 per cent. on the population, and in 1867, 486,179, or 2·9 per cent. This is necessarily a very brief and imperfect summary of a

report that will be found full of most valuable and interesting information.

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The reports upon the pauperism and charity organization of Leipzig, of Her Majesty's Consul-General Crowe, are, like all the published official communications of that gentleman, distinguished by great clearness and fulness of detail. Written with a perfect knowledge of the principles and the organization of English poor law administration, Mr. Crowe's report is peculiarly valuable as enabling us to compare the principle of the Leipzig system with that of some other European communities, especially of Elberfeld, with which Mr. Crowe is so well acquainted. As the system of Barmen and of Crefeld is founded upon that of Elberfeld, so the system of Leipzig is founded upon that of Hamburg, and appears to have outlived it. The great increase in the pauperism of Leipzig, which at the close of 1804 amounted to 15·5 per cent., induced the "Council" to institute an inquiry into the new system of "poor establishment" of Hamburg, which was then attracting considerable attention. The result of the inquiry was the adoption of the present system, which has survived the admirable model upon which it was founded.

The distinguishing characteristic of the old Hamburg system, described by Baron Von Voght, as of the existing systems of Elberfeld and Leipzig, is strictness and minuteness of investigation of cases. It is assumed that the existence of destitution, as well as the character and extent of it, can be ascertained by careful inquiry without the aid of such a "test" as the offer of relief in a workhouse. It is admitted that such inquiry to be efficient must be of a most inquisitorial character, must be conducted by agents peculiarly qualified by intelligence and social position, and must not involve more labour and time than men engaged in the active occupations of professions or of business can be reasonably expected to devote to it. These are conditions that it is difficult to obtain at all—almost impossible to secure permanently. One hundred and eighty gentlemen undertook the duties in Hamburg, and so long apparently as they continued to discharge them, the system as described by Baron Von Voght in his letter to Mr. Canning was most successful. It is remarkable enough that after the Elbersfeld system had been established and its success generally recognized, Dr. Lischke, who was so closely identified with its administration, delivered at the request of the municipality a lecture upon it at Hamburg, with a view to induce the citizens to readopt their own principles as from another source.

Leipzig:

It will be seen from Mr. Crowe's report that the framework, so to speak, of the machinery in Leipzig for relief is put together upon the same model as that of the old system of Hamburg and the existing system at Elbelfeld.

The governing body is the Armen Directorium.

"The main principle," Mr. Crowe writes, "upon which the directorium was founded was, that it should have its root in the municipal council and yet be independent. It was to be composed of a 'society of patriotic men authorised by the municipal council to administer poor relief,' subject to control in case of its proceedings not being strictly legal; subject even to dismissal by superior authority, but self-existent, choosing its own officers and visitors, and renewing itself by election.

"With this view the directorium comprises 33 members, elected for three years, presided over by one of the bürgermeister or a senior municipal councillor as chairman, and composed of a vice-director, two municipal councillors, three town deputies, a medical man, a clergyman, an advocate, merchants, professors, artists, and professional men of standing and sufficient income. One third of all the members are bound to retire by lot at the close of each year, care being taken to preserve the elements above described in their proper proportions.

"From the directorium committees for managing the indoor relief establishments are chosen. But the most important duties of the directorium relate to the appointment of twenty overseers and sixty-two visitors, entrusted with out-door relief in twenty districts into which the town is divided; but whereas the overseers are chosen from the members of the directory, the visitors are assistants elected from amongst the citizens of the town by the directory, and without a seat or vote at the poor board.

"The duty of the overseers is to attend conjointly with the visitors to the wants of the poor of their several districts, to determine the quantity and kind of relief, and see to its distribution by the visitors. That of the visitor is to receive the application for relief, to visit and watch over each case and ascertain the means of relieving it, to pay the amount granted in money or in kind, to procure medical relief, in fact to see that the needy are made to participate in all the benefits which the poor establishment affords. He is bound to make a personal inquiry into the circumstances of every applicant, to ascertain whether he is in the receipt of private charity, and to make frequent revisions of each case in order that the results of his inquiries may serve as a reliable basis for the measures of the directory.

" The rules under which the visitor is allowed to grant relief
 " are as stringent in principle as they can well be. In cases of
 " urgent necessity he may give immediate relief either in money
 " or in kind ; but I shall have occasion to show that there is not
 " in reality such rigid control as to the form and amount of relief,
 " whether immediate or remote, as to preclude abuse. All the
 " officers under the directorium are unpaid and compulsory, and
 " the persons to whom they are entrusted are usually pleased and
 " flattered at their elections, though at times the duties are heavy
 " enough to weigh on the time of a man of business. No dis-
 " tinction of class, of politics, or of religion is allowed to influence
 " the appointment of any candidate."

A serious defect in this system, avoided however in that of Elberfeld, is pointed out by Mr. Crowe :—“ The visitors as a body
 “ are not bound to hold meetings within their districts under the
 “ presidency of their overseers. They receive communication of
 “ the minutes of the meetings of the directorium, and they are
 “ responsible through the overseers to the directorium ; but there
 “ is no means of attaining that uniformity of practice in the
 “ granting of relief which is so surely compassed at Elberfeld by
 “ the machinery of alternate meetings held by the Pfleger and
 “ Verwaltung.”

Within the last few years a good deal of attention has been directed to the practicability of substituting for “ the workhouse test ” a system of strict investigation of cases. In the republication of one of his father’s works, Mr. John M. Cobbett, who with much of his father’s power seems to have inherited all his father’s antipathy to the “ new poor law,” urges this view with considerable force. From other quarters the same suggestion is made and pressed upon boards of administration. It is very doubtful whether such a system of inquisition would be permanently accepted by any class of people in this country. However that may be, it is certain that the class of people whose co-operation would be essential to the success of such a system could never be induced to give to it the sustained attention and continuous service without which the change would be simply to aggravate the evil of our present imperfect system of inquiry. The experiment has been tried in this country, and tried under exceptionally favourable circumstances, but I regret to say has not succeeded. Even in Elberfeld, as was anticipated, the question begins to be discussed whether a workhouse is not an indispensable supplement to the system of strict personal investigation. Mr. Crowe’s report

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upon the Leipzig system points to what will always be the weak point of any system of poor relief that relies exclusively, as does the Elberfeld system at present, and as did the Hamburg system more than half a century ago, upon the result of personal investigation, however strict, of applications for relief.

The number of districts into which Leipzig is divided for poor law purposes was originally 12; it gradually rose to 16, and in 1867 to 20; but it is the opinion of men who have had great experience of the administration here, that the overseers' and visitors' districts are too large and too unequally distributed, and the tendency of public opinion in this respect is in favour of a reform which should bring the system more in conformity with that in existence at Elberfeld.

If the number of "cases" under the supervision of each overseer be reduced to four, and a sufficient number of qualified men can be found to devote themselves to the work in the spirit in which their "instructions" are drawn up, Leipzig may possibly dispense, as Elberfeld does, with a workhouse test. But as Mr. Crowe points out, the system of inquiry needs to be not only minute, but to be subject to very strict control.

Another and serious defect of the system is the want of proper control as to the manner in which the visitors perform the duties confided to them. At Elberfeld this control is exercised by fortnightly meetings, in which the visitors submit their question papers to a regular revision, and by annual meetings of the higher administration, where every case is revised. At Leipzig, where this control is not exercised, the treatment of paupers in each district and subdivision differs very widely indeed. Not only do some overseers and visitors spend more upon similar cases than their colleagues in other districts, but there is an essential variety in the quantity and kind of grants. Some give more bread than money, others more money than bread. Some give more of both, others less, than the cases require. A few allow themselves to be imposed upon; so that according to a paragraph in one of the reports, "It happened several times in the course of one year that " grants were withdrawn or ordered to be refunded, because they " were proved to have been given upon a false description of their " cases by the applicants."

Poor law "reformers" who contend that a system of strict investigation can take the place of any other test, should understand what that system means in those places in which it exists.

The "workhouse test" is discredited in many foreign countries upon the alleged ground that, as Mr. Crowe says of Leipzig, "it is calculated to destroy the sense of family ties which the system of outdoor relief preserves." The true ground, however, of their failure in most European countries in which they have been tried was the general dissatisfaction at the lax administration under which so many of them became, even in England, instead of "houses of industry," abodes of vice and idleness. The "workhouse test," however, having been abandoned in Leipzig, and never tried at Elberfeld, here is the substitute for it. The extract is long, but it is most important that a clear understanding should be had of the nature of the "strict inquiry" that is now sometimes recommended instead of the workhouse as a test of destitution.

The test of destitution here is the test which is applied at Elberfeld, the rigid and inquisitorial string of questions which makes up the Fragebogen or question paper, to which the applicant can only refuse to reply by surrendering all claim to public charity. But even before the visitor begins to put questions, he warns the applicant that there are preliminary rules of conduct which he must observe; and these he reads as follows:—

" 1. Every person who asks for alms has to submit to be questioned as to his circumstances. He is bound to answer all questions put to him truthfully. If he refuses to answer, or answers falsely, he loses all claim to relief, and is liable to be taken in charge for attempted imposition.

" 2. Every person in receipt of public relief loses *ipso facto* all civic rights; he is under the charge of the poor administration, and responsible to it for all sins of omission or commission; he is under obligation to give an account of all his doings and obey all orders that are given to him. His bearing towards the persons who relieve him must always be modest and proper. In case of change of dwelling, notice must be given beforehand to the officers of the administration.

" 3. Every item of relief is for the applicant's own use, and he must neither sell nor part with it to anyone for a consideration.

" 4. Every person in receipt of relief is bound to abstain from visiting places of public entertainment. He dare not keep a dog or any domestic animal.

" 5. Every person contravening rules 2-4 is liable to lose his grant, or be subject to punishment under the police laws.

Some of the numerous questions in the Fragebogen or question paper necessarily have reference to the points contained in the

Larrete.

rules I have just stated. "Does the applicant keep a dog or subscribe to the public lottery?" are unfailing subjects of inquiry. But, further, the applicant is asked whether he was ever relieved before, and when; is he married or a widower; is he divorced or separated; which of his children require relief; what school do they attend; how much school money is charged for them; are any of them in educational establishments; have they tutors, and who are they? These are mild and harmless points upon which the visitor touches. The following are more searching:—Has the applicant ever been sentenced, and if so, what is the nature of his present conduct? What is his trade or calling, and what do he, his wife, and children earn per week? Can he reckon upon a certain amount of earnings, or is the amount variable? Has he applied to the "Arbeits Nachweisungs bureau"? Has he a lodging for himself, and does he let any part of it; does he live alone or with another? Is the lodging healthy or the reverse? What rent does he pay? Does the rent include firing, lighting, and bed? Has the applicant bedding and furniture, a savings bank book, or jewellery? Is he a member of a sick club? What does he subscribe to the club? What is the weekly claim upon it in case of sickness, what the death premium? Has he debts; are his things in pawn; from whom has he made a loan, and at what rate of interest? The question paper ends with inquiries as to relatives in ascending and descending lines, and their ability to contribute to the applicant's relief.

But the *Fragebogen* does not merely contain questions to be answered by the applicant. They contain questions to be answered by the police, and in order to understand the full scope of these, it is necessary to enter a little into the position of the working and servant classes. Every person at Leipzig is registered either as a citizen or as a stranger, and that section of the police office called the *Einwohner* bureau is charged with the duty of registering the residence and profession of every person throughout the town. The visitor inquires of the *Einwohner* bureau whether the applicant has a settlement at Leipzig; what has been his conduct; is he industrious and orderly; is he given to drink or incorrigibly idle; is he of dissolute habits; has he been punished by law for any offence, and if so, why and where; is there any other information respecting him? The visitor inquires also of the poor bureau has the applicant received relief at a previous date? Armed with this information before he sees the applicant, he compares his statements and tests their truth.

Long experience has convinced German administrators that no investigation less minute and inquisitorial could be safely substituted for the discarded test of the workhouse. It needs very little experience to be assured that in this country such a system of inquiry, even if practicable, would never be tolerated.

Upon all other points of poor law administration in Leipzig Mr. Crowe's report is equally full and will repay careful perusal.

The report upon the Elberfeld system of poor relief made to the Local Government Board in 1872 is reprinted, corrected to the present time, in this collection. It will be observed that there has been a considerable increase both in pauperism and expenditure in 1872 and 1873 as compared with preceding years. But in the first place I was unable to ascertain the increase of population, and in the next place distress arising from the recent war would be quite sufficient to account for the increased pauperism. Those who are engaged in its administration have still, I am assured, unabated confidence in the soundness of the system. On this subject an extremely interesting paper by Herr Seyffardt, of Crefeld, will be found among the reports.

LIPSIKE.

ELBERFELD.

Absolute pauperism among the peasants, who constitute the great bulk of the population in Russia, is to a great extent obviated by the communal system of land tenure, the ease with which work can be obtained, and the great extent of unoccupied Crown land. The standard of comfort is, however, exceedingly low; and the inhabitants of country villages, who are able only to eke out a bare subsistence when the harvest is good, are obliged to throw themselves on the charity of neighbouring districts. When there is any failure of the crops, Government comes to the relief of over-populated villages by giving them Crown lands for colonization.

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Prior to the emancipation of the serfs the landlord was bound to feed them. Besides this, from the year 1775 to 1864, there existed in the chief town of every province a society for the relief of the poor, composed of representatives of the three classes of nobles, townsmen, and villagers, and administering a funded capital which was originally supplied from private gifts, and imperial subsidies, and from certain privileges conferred on them by the Government. They were thus enabled to build orphan and lunatic asylums, hospitals, almshouses, and prisons.

In 1864 a new system of local government was introduced, and

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representative assemblies called "zemstvos" composed of land-owners, and holders of land under the communal institutions, were established. To them all funds and establishments for the relief of the poor were confided; and they were empowered to levy various taxes. They act quite independently of one another, and in accordance with local exigencies only.

The country people in Russia flock periodically to the towns in search of employment, and this custom largely increases the mendicancy and pauperism of the cities. In St. Petersburgh a society exists for the relief and classification of beggars. The members are for the most part nominated by Government, and the institution is entirely under Government control. Their funded capital is 140,000*l.*, and they obtain additional revenues from gifts and subsidies from the Government and the municipality. They investigate the cases of persons charged with begging by the police, who during the last four years have averaged from 2,300 to 3,700 annually; and either send them back to their communes, relieve them in almshouses, or hand them over to the magistrates.

The Government also partially controls the Grand Philanthropic Society, which is under the direction of the metropolitan of St. Petersburgh. The members of the council are selected from the great dignitaries of the empire, and the number of persons taking part in the working of the institution amounts to 1,000. Branch committees for the relief of the poor sit in seven towns. This society supports almshouses and schools, and grants medicines to the poor. In 1870 its funded capital was 333,000*l.* and its real estate amounted to 440,000*l.* Its total revenue in 1869 amounted to 92,500*l.*

Of late years parochial charities have been established by voluntary agency in St. Petersburgh to provide for cases which could not be met by the Imperial Society. These charities grant relief in money and kind, schooling and maintenance in almshouses. The parishes are divided into districts under the care of guardians who visit and report on the cases of all applicants for relief to the working committee. These parochial societies appear to work independently of one another, and depend entirely on private subscriptions.

When, in the reign of Catherine II., the lands belonging to the monasteries in Russia which had formerly supported the destitute were taken by the Imperial Government, an "office of public charity" was established in every province, and endowed with sums of money from various sources, and with certain privileges. These

offices are under the direction of the governor of the province, and have the charge of all hospitals, asylums, orphanages, and workhouses. They do not give relief directly to individuals, but only maintain these establishments. No one is sent to a workhouse unless by order of a magistrate.

Peasants are not admitted to these establishments, but are sent back to their communes. As no provision for the relief of the poor exists in rural parishes, destitute persons are usually taken care of by a family of villagers.

The place of birth or domicile of a pauper is only bound to repay the cost of his relief if he has been in hospital. Parents are bound to maintain the children, children their parents, and wives their husbands. No taxes are levied for the relief of the poor, and no statistics are obtainable. No distinction is made between foreigners and natives.

The means for the relief of the poor are perfectly inadequate to cope with the amount of poverty, and the committee are only able to relieve the most pressing cases. Beggars may by law be punished by being sent to the workhouse, or to their own communes; but the law is not enforced, and the streets of Moscow are infested by them.

In Odessa the relief of the poor is left almost entirely to private charity, but the municipality have under their charge a hospital for the insane, blind, and crippled, an orphanage, and an establishment for deserted children.

There are various hospitals, and a Société de Bienfaisance, managed by private agency and supported by private charity.

The laws against vagrancy and begging, the penalty for which is a short term of imprisonment, are not enforced.

Foreign paupers would obtain no relief from the authorities, nor would they be sent back to their own country. They might be assisted by the Société de Bienfaisance, or by societies established by the different nationalities.

In the Baltic provinces a general poor law exists only in rural parishes, the inhabitants of each town being allowed to frame their own regulations for the relief of the poor. Every rural parish is bound to provide for the support and medical assistance of every destitute person who has been resident in the parish for 15 years, and whose relations are unable to maintain him. It must also provide for lunatics, but some assistance is given by the provincial government when the number of this class is excessive.

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The pauper wives of recruits obtain relief in kind, and their children are gratuitously educated.

An annual list of paupers, and amount which it is proposed to allow to each of them, is made by the police and laid before the parish committee for approval. Funds are raised by endowments, voluntary gifts, annual subscriptions, interest paid for the loan of grain from the stock magazine which exists in every parish, and if necessary by an extraordinary tax paid by the farmers according to their rent, and by servants according to their wages. The sums to be levied must be fixed by the parish at a parish meeting, and approved by the district police. The financial affairs of the parish are under the control of the parish committee, who must render a quarterly account of their receipts and expenditure to the district police. A manager of the poor, or "parish warden," is elected annually.

Persons able to work who become paupers are placed under the surveillance of the police, and may be sentenced by the parish committee to work off their debt by a period of service on the public works. When a parishioner becomes distressed from his own negligence or laziness, the parish committee are empowered to place him, by agreement, with a farmer, with whom he may work to support himself.

When there is a disposition to carry out the laws against vagrancy, the police have little difficulty in doing so, as each inhabitant must be provided with a passport which is renewed annually. Paupers may be removed to the district in which they have a settlement, but this power is seldom resorted to, though the expenses of their relief is charged to their own district.

There is no information as to how these laws are carried out, nor are any statistics obtainable.

In the town of Riga unpaid officers are chosen from time to time for the care and maintenance of the poor. These officers are supplied with money to pay the paupers who receive regular relief; and may relieve cases of urgent necessity, reporting the fact to the central committee. The ministers of the several churches also bring cases of destitution under the notice of the committee. A tax for the relief of the poor is annually imposed by an alderman, who is charged with the duty, on all owners of property within the city limits, and on all burghers.

Refractory paupers are sent to an institution where they are compelled to labour on the public account.

The number of persons relieved in Riga in 1871 was 4,050, or about four per cent. on the population.

Every destitute person is entitled to support from the district to which he belongs. Paupers are considered to have their settlement in the place in which the latest entries of their names have been made in the church or rate books. Relatives in a direct line are bound to maintain their paupers when they are in a position to do so.

The administration of the relief to the poor in each community or poor district is vested in a board elected by the members of the community, and subject to an annual election of one third of their number. Rates for the relief of the poor are levied through a certain per-centaage on the revenue of real property, and by a personal tax on every Finnish subject. Except in town these rates are rarely increased by voluntary subscriptions. Each community is bound to erect a permanent workhouse, but this law has not been complied with.

In some places there are poorhouses for *old* and *impotent* paupers; other paupers as well as orphans being sent to the so-called poor farm.

In cases of emergency temporary hospitals are provided, but there are no permanent hospitals maintained at the expense of the community.

Vagrants and beggars are arrested by the police and handed over to the poor law administration of the district. If they belong to another district they are sent there. Destitute foreigners are sent to their own countries.

The mendicancy of the country has decreased of late years, and no deaths from famine have been reported; but the present system enables great numbers of people who are not in want to share the relief meant for the destitute.

Each community of taxpayers is bound to support its own poor, and the relations of paupers are liable, as already stated, for the expense of their maintenance. This legal obligation is carried out by a body elected by the members of the community, and administering a fund raised by a personal tax levied on all inhabitants. This body grants outdoor relief in various forms, and manages the hospitals, asylums, almshouses, and workhouses. Those only are admitted into these latter institutions who have become a burden on the community by their own misconduct.

An ecclesiastical board also administers relief, principally to members of the Evangelical and Lutheran bodies, but not entirely excluding members of other denominations. Private charitable

RUSSIA. societies are managed according to the terms of their own foundations.

Tramps and vagrants are returned to their own parishes by a compulsory pass. The ecclesiastical board, however, gives relief regardless of settlement.

The writer of the report remarks that free gifts to the poor have been found not to be beneficial; and recourse has therefore been had more and more to natural means of support, such as improved dwellings, gifts of medicine, and assistance in working.

ITALY. Amongst the reports published in this volume there is not one of more interest than that of Sir Augustus Paget upon the pauperism of Italy. Apart from the account of the poor law legislation and system of its administration, there are details upon the charities and the mendicancy of Italy and Rome that give peculiar value to this report. Whether the reader agrees with the writer or differs from him, he will be struck with the novelty of some of his views, and with the clearness and force with which they are stated. Those who believe that the multiplicity of charitable institutions and the abundance of funds at their disposal contribute largely to the increase of pauperism, will find their views strongly supported by a writer, Mr. Fano, "one of the highest authorities on matters relating to the condition of the poorer classes in Italy;" while, upon the other hand, the facts stated by Sir Augustus Paget will be satisfactory and encouraging to those who desire to believe that pauperism is not aggravated by lavish expenditure in charity. To these opposite views, the statement of which cannot be very well condensed, it is only necessary to direct attention, and to refer briefly to the more general parts of the report.

By the Italian civil code every man is bound to support, according to their necessity and his means, his wife, his relations who are direct ascendants or descendants, his father-in-law, and his mother-in-law. He must provide for his brothers and sisters what is strictly necessary for their support, if their destitution does not arise from their own fault. These obligations are reciprocal.

Beyond this there is in Italy, speaking generally, no legal provision for the relief of the poor, and no special tax is levied for the purpose; and as there is no obligation on the part of local bodies to support destitute persons, the place of birth or domicile of individual paupers is not bound to pay the expenses of their relief elsewhere. There is consequently no law of settlement.

No distinction is made between foreigners and natives with regard to admission into charitable institutions or asylums. Consuls are, however, generally expected to pay for natives of the countries they represent.

ITALY.

Every province is bound to provide for the maintenance of pauper lunatics, and to assist communes in supporting foundlings. Communes are also obliged to provide medical assistance for those who have no means of procuring it. In some parts of Italy certain other expenses connected with the relief of the destitute are borne by the communes.

It appears from the returns of the provincial and communal receipts and expenditure, that in the year 1870 the following sums were expended in the maintenance of pauper lunatics and foundlings, and in miscellaneous charities:—

Francs.			
Pauper lunatics	-	-	4,315,522
Foundlings	-	-	8,044,754
Miscellaneous	-	-	2,584,745
			14,945,021

Very large provision is made in certain parts of Italy for the relief of the poor by means of charitable foundations, over the administration of which the State exercises some control. (In 1861 there were in Italy, without counting Tuscany, Sicily, and Apulia, for which the returns had not been received, 12,976, such institutions possessing property to the amount of 861,921,624 francs.)

Besides hospitals, asylums, and other establishments into which the poor are admitted, there are many institutions for granting outdoor relief in various forms; funds for providing poor girls with marriage portions being very common.

By a law of 1862 the administration of these charitable foundations is secured to the bodies to whom it was originally assigned by their statute or by ancient custom. Each governing body is, however, bound to submit to the representative assembly of the province, for its approval, their internal regulations, their transactions with regard to the property of the institution, and certain other matters. In case of disagreement there is an appeal to the Royal Council. The Minister of the Interior may inquire into the working of charitable foundations; and the governing body may be dissolved by royal decree for persistent violation of their statute. Institutions may in certain cases be reformed, provided the funds are applied to carry out objects as like as possible to those contemplated by the founder. Communal councils may

inspect the accounts of charities, but may not interfere in the administration.

A charity board is now to be established in every commune consisting of members elected by the Comunal Council. Their duty is to administer all funds bequeathed generally for the relief of the poor, or of which the mode of administration has been left undetermined.

The establishments known as "Monti Frumentarii," for landing seed corn to farmers, and the "Monte di Pietà," or pawning establishments, were originally founded with benevolent intent, but cannot now in any way be considered as connected with the relief of the poor.

Under the late Pontifical Government the relief of the poor in Rome was confided to a relief commission (*Commissione dei Sussidii*) ; having a cardinal as president, and consisting of certain officers of the Pontifical Court, and deputies nominated by the Pope.

The city was divided into 12 "regions," and every "region" into parishes. In every parish was a relief board composed of the incumbent and two parishioners, one of whom was a lady. The members of these parochial boards, with the addition of a physician and a surgeon, formed a "regional" board which was presided over by a member of the central commission. All the members served gratuitously, but the "regional" boards employed paid officers.

Persons seeking relief petitioned the president of the central commission through their parochial board. The case was investigated by a member of this board, who discussed and reported on it to the regional board, on whose recommendation the central commission granted relief.

Relief was granted in money or kind ; and employment, mostly nominal, was, under certain restrictions, provided at the public works.

The sum expended by the commission was about 1,400,000 francs, of which 1,350,135 were provided by the Treasury.

The care of the poor in Rome is now in the hands of the charity board (*Commissione de Carità*) established in 1862. They have reduced the sum previously spent in relieving the poor by a sum of about 20,000 francs a month ; principally by putting an end to the distribution of articles of bedding, clothing, &c., and by restricting the number of persons relieved.

The hospitals, almshouses, and asylums in Rome are very numerous ; they are supported by foundations and subscriptions,

and are managed by different religious and other bodies. There are also many institutions for the outdoor relief of the poor.

ITALY.

The following account of the system of poor relief, which was introduced into the town of Hamburgh about the year 1788, is taken from the very interesting "Account of the Institutions at Hamburgh, for the Employment and Support of the Poor, in a letter to some friends in England," by Baron Von Voght. The writer, who had been for some time residing in England, states, that about seven years before the publication of his letter the evils of pauperism in Hamburgh having become intolerable, the existing means for the relief of the poor were consolidated under one management, and a new system of administration was introduced. Subscriptions were collected by each citizen in turn, and the most respectable of the inhabitants made it a point to collect in person. A central committee was formed of members chosen for life, and presided over by senators. The town was divided into 60 districts, and three overseers were appointed for each district; and for this duty a great number of wealthy and respectable citizens volunteered. Ample instructions were given to them, with papers of printed interrogations, which were to be submitted to the paupers. And the accuracy of the answers were verified by a personal examination. "Actual relief was the first object; for we were all convinced of the barbarity of preventing beggary, when provision for real want was not previously prepared, but at the moment that this provision was secured, measures were taken to prevent any man from receiving a shilling, which he was able to earn for himself."

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Inquiries were made to ascertain what each pauper required for bare subsistence. "It was our determined principle to reduce this support lower than what any industrious man or woman in such circumstances could earn; for if the manner in which relief is given is not a spur to industry, it becomes undoubtedly a premium to sloth and prodigacy." If any poor person denied that he was able to earn this sum, he was set to spin flax by the overseers. Clean flax was sold to the paupers, and the yarn was bought from them at 30 per cent. above the market price; the work being so arranged that every inducement was given to industry. A school for spinning was established, and the quantity of work which the disabled poor could perform was easily ascertained by a week's trial in this institution.

Provision was made for the medical relief of the sick, and for

HAMBURGH. the assistance of women with large families. No relief was allowed for any child who was past the age of six years, "but the child received, on being sent to school, not only payment for his work, but also an allowance in the compound ratio of his attendance at school, his behaviour and his application to work, which amounted to 12*d.* or 18*d.* a week, exclusive of other premiums."

As far as can be learnt from the report from Hamburgh, the present system of poor relief in that town is based on the principles of the admirable organization described by Baron Von Voght.

BAVARIA. We are told in the clear and concise report of Herr Von Daxenberger that "the system of public poor relief, as at present in force in Bavaria, dates, in all its more important features, from the year 1816. This system had to such an extent proved itself a good one, that it was adopted in the main in the new legislative enactment of 1869, and was specially reserved to Bavaria by the Treaty of Versailles of November 23, 1870, in preference to the general law of the Confederation."

Under this law legal provision for the poor is so far obligatory that a complete system of relief administration is organized by law throughout the country, and paupers are in certain cases enabled to appeal to the government authority to compel relieving officers to do their duty. No pauper can, however, prefer a claim at law for public relief, and the form in which relief is to be given is left entirely to the discretion of the poor law authorities. These authorities are, however, legally responsible for dereliction of their duties or abuse of their authority.

The objects for which public provision for the relief of the destitute was instituted are: 1. To afford relief to necessitous persons. 2. To endeavour to prevent their becoming complete paupers. Public relief can only be given to persons in absolute want of the means of sustaining life and health, and by whom relief is not obtainable from relations legally bound to support them, or from public charities. Paupers must perform, within the measure of their strength, certain labour, either in or out of a workhouse; and if they within five years of the receipt of relief become possessed of property they are bound to repay the amount. The same rule applies to relations and other persons legally obliged to pay for the maintenance of the pauper. The amount of relief given is to be limited to the bare necessities of life.

The duty of carrying out this law is entrusted to three kinds of

local bodies. Primarily the "Poor Relief Council," acting in every political community (or community having a recognized municipal organization), are responsible for the performance of the duty. They are to a certain extent assisted by "District" and "Provincial" Councils, acting over larger administrative areas. Members of the Communal Poor Relief Council are partly elected, and partly ex-officio from occupying certain positions in the municipality. Their number is fixed by the magistracy, and the burgomaster is chairman of the council. The service is compulsory and unpaid. Funds are derived from endowments, gifts, contributions, special local taxes, and, in case of necessity, from a special tax levied in the same way as the ordinary communal taxes. The Minister of the Interior exercises a general control over poor relief councils, and they must, in incurring any serious or permanent expense, act in concurrence with the municipal authorities. They are bound to relieve the destitute, maintain lunatics, bury paupers, and educate pauper children. Relief appears to be given entirely in kind. Communes are bound to relieve all destitute persons in the first instance, though they may subsequently recover the cost of the relief of the pauper from the place of his birth or domicile. Journeymen, apprentices, and day-labourers must, in case of illness, be relieved during a period of 90 days by the commune in which they are resident, without the place of their settlement incurring any liability. Foreigners have a right to be provided with the absolutely indispensable means of continuing their journey, and with the same relief as natives. Workmen who are employed in any commune not their own may be called upon by the authorities of this commune to pay a sum not exceeding 1d. a week to the sick fund. This payment confers a right to hospital assistance in case of illness. In certain cases the authorities may claim a similar payment from members of their own commune, whom they consider likely to stand in need of medical assistance. Large employers of labour may be called on by the relief council to make provision for assistance to their workpeople in case of sickness, and to require their workpeople to contribute. The relief council are bound to maintain all necessary establishments and make all arrangements for the relief of the poor.

All matters connected with "district poor relief" are managed in the same way as other "district" affairs by the regular "district council" and their committee. Their duties are to assist local communes who are too heavily burdened, to maintain charitable institutions and hospitals, to establish poorhouses, workhouses,

BAVARIA. pauper hospitals and schools, to establish savings and lending banks, and manage the district poor fund. Their funds are provided from various State allowances and contributions; and when these are not sufficient a special rate is levied.

Provincial poor relief is managed by the provincial council, whose duty it is to maintain various charitable and poor law establishments, lunatic asylums, and other sanitary institutions, as well as to render assistance to districts overburdened with the expenses of the poor law.

AUSTRIA. Public poor relief in Austria is based upon the principle that the communal authorities are bound to relieve destitute persons born within their district, and may be administratively forced to comply with this obligation, though the civil law does not give the poor a right to be supported or assisted in any way. The necessary funds are provided by voluntary subscriptions, endowments, and by certain taxes and special privileges. The manner in which the poor are relieved differs in different communes according to the existence or absence of establishments for the reception of paupers. Where no such establishments exist, the poor and infirm are provided with food and lodging at the houses of all the householders of the commune in turn, for a period of time calculated by the amount of taxes they pay. This system of billeting (the Einlagersystem) prevails only in the country and principally in the Alpine districts. Lunatic asylums and other institutions of a similar character are provided by the provinces, or by the districts, where districts exist; and the provincial legislatures are at liberty to take measures with a view of lightening the burden of poor relief in the communes. General public hospitals, into which paupers are admitted on payment by the local authorities, are under state supervision. The foundling hospitals are established for the benefit of—

1. Children born in lying-in-hospitals of unmarried women.
2. Children who have been abandoned, if, and for as long as, their parents remain undiscovered.
3. Children of unmarried women who can show that they have been suddenly confined when on their way to a lying-in hospital.

There are also special hospitals for incurables. The communal authorities are assisted in relieving the poor by associations called Pfarrarmeninstitute. These associations, which exist in nearly every province, are "benevolent secular public institutions, for

" the due administration of public relief to the poor, by the
 " combined efforts of clergy and laity." The tendency of provincial legislation is, however, to unite these bodies, which do not confine their operation to a single commune, to the regular communal authorities, and thus concentrate the administration of relief under one committee. Private charities in Austria are managed according to the will of their founders, and are not subject to state interference.

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The education of pauper children is included in the communal poor relief, orphans being taken into orphan asylums, which are maintained either from the local pauper funds or from private subscriptions, and other children being exempted from the payment of fees in the "Volksschulen" and military schools at the universities and other educational institutions of the higher class. There are also a great number of student endowments, which afford pauper scholars the means of continuing their studies in the highest branches of education.

Vagrants and beggars may, in certain cases, be sent back to their communes by fixed marches or under escort. The subject of vagrancy is, however, now under the consideration of the Reichsrath.

The writer of the report concludes thus : "The result of the Austrian system may be said to be satisfactory. In the country, perhaps, it is not all that might be desired. This is, however, excusable, as the legally determined poor relief falls very heavily on the smaller and poorer communes. The provincial legislatures are endeavouring to lighten this burden by creating public charitable institutions, which spread themselves like a net over the provinces; and in this respect the execution of the idea, repeatedly expressed by provincial legislatures, to the effect that, as regards poor relief, the present communes shall not be considered political units subject to relief obligations, but that several of them shall be united together and larger centres created, would be very advantageous."

Of the poor law systems of France and Belgium no fuller or more interesting account has ever yet been presented to English readers than will be found in the reports of M. Lee Hamilton and Sir Henry Barron. These are of special interest, as illustrating the different result of systems founded upon the same principle, but administered by a machinery essentially different. The French system is the most perfect development of charity organization of which we have any record. The Belgian system is one of charity

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organization also ; but being, unlike the French, wholly withdrawn from State control, it appears to be distinguished by abuses similar to those that resulted from the unreformed parochial administration of England.

Except in the cases of lunatics and of deserted children there is no compulsory relief in France. All relief that is given professes to be given "in charity."

"En France," says M. Adam Block, "malgré la prescription, écrit dans la loi du 19 Mars 1793, la bienfaisance est complètement facultative, et elle ne devient obligatoire que dans deux cas où les intérêts de l'ordre et de la sécurité publique se trouvent engagés ; c'est lorsqu'il s'agit de séquestrer des aliénés ou de prendre soin des enfants trouvés. Dans ces deux cas, les secours doivent être fournis nécessairement par le département et la commune auxquels appartiennent les individus qui réclament l'assistance.

"Si la charité s'exerce librement en France, ses effets n'en sont pas moins puissants, et la multiplicité des institutions qu'elle a créées et qu'elle crée chaque jour répond à la diversité des besoins que le malheur peut faire naître. A peine l'enfant entre-t-il dans le monde qu'il ressent l'influence de cette ingénieuse prévoyance. S'il est abandonné, il trouve dans les établissements hospitaliers l'asile qui lui manque ; s'il vient à perdre ses parents, il peut encore être recueilli dans des *orphanlins* où il reçoit également les bienfaits de l'éducation. Lorsqu'il est élevé par des parents peu aisés, les *crèches* viennent offrir aux mères un précieux auxiliaire, qui leur permet de continuer leur travail habituel, sans compromettre les soins réclamés par les enfants (voy. plus loin). Plus tard, les salles de d'asile contiennent l'œuvre des crèches, et donnent les premiers éléments d'une instruction qui complètent en suite les écoles primaires.

"Arrivés à l'adolescence, les enfants pauvres peuvent être admis dans les *colonies agricoles*, et grâce à l'apprentissage qu'ils font dans ces établissements, devenir de bons ouvriers ruraux. D'un autre côté, les jeunes filles trouvent encore dans ouvroirs les bienfaits d'une éducation professionnelle gratuite.

"L'indigence reçoit à tous les âges de la part des particuliers ou du gouvernement de nombreux témoignages d'une compassion vigilante et intelligente. Dans quelques villes, on a construit pour les classes les moins aisées, de vastes cités où elles peuvent avoir à un prix modéré un logement sain et commode. Partout les habitations occupées par les pauvres sont l'objet d'une vigilance spéciale exercée dans l'intérêt de la salubrité. (Loi du

“ 13 Avril 1850). On développe chez eux le goût et l'habitude de la propreté, par la création d'établissements dans lesquels les bains et le lavage s'opèrent soit gratuitement, soit à des taux extrêmement modérées (Loi du 3 Fevrier 1851).

“ Des institutions particulières ont aussi pour but de faciliter à l'indigent l'accomplissement des actes les plus importants de la vie civile. Enfin, l'assistance judiciaire leur assure les biensfaits de la justice, dont ils étaient trop souvent privés auparavant, faute de pouvoir avancer les sommes nécessaires pour faire valoir leurs droits devant les diverses juridictions (L. 22 Janvier 1851, voy. p. 144).

“ Dans les villes, les monts-de-piété préservent ceux qu'une gêne momentanée vient atteindre, des exigences de la cupidité et de l'usure ; des ateliers de charité fournissent, dans quelques villes, un travail et refuge à ceux qui ne pourraient trouver ailleurs d'occupations lucratives ; enfin, dans les années où la cherté des subsistances impose aux classes pauvres un surcroît de souffrances, des mesures exceptionnelles permettent à l'indigent de traverser ces crises, en lui procurant, par diverses combinaisons, une réduction de prix sur les principales denrées. Enfin, dans tous les temps, des dispensaires, où se distribuent des consultations et des remèdes gratuits, donnent aux indigents les moyens de se soigner sans quitter leur domicile, dans les cas de maladie les moins graves ou en attendant leur transport dans les hôpitaux. L'institution des médecins cantonaux présente des avantages analogues pour les populations des communes rurales (voy. plus loin).

“ Il existe encore dans les villes des institutions spécialement destinées aux femmes. Les unes ont pour but de venir en aide aux femmes qui sont sur le point de devenir mères, ou de les assister pendant les premiers temps qui suivent l'accouchement (voy. plus loin les sociétés de charité maternelle). Les autres, telles que les maisons de refuge, et quelques sociétés analogues, ont pour objet de ramener dans une voie meilleure, les filles qui s'étaient précédemment livrées à la prostitution.”

Speaking of this system Mr. Hamilton observes :—

“ The French system is a happy combination of private benevolence with official guarantees. The sympathy of the public is enlisted for the poor by authority ; both the public and the Government working together in the great cause of charity. The composition of the unpaid commissions for indoor and outdoor relief secures for the indigent the active co-operation of charitable persons, while their connexion with the municipalities and their control by the Government are guarantees against

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" abuse. The Legislature has wisely separated the management of " the funds destined for the poor from that of the municipal " finances; and the interests of the poor are confided to other " hands than those which undertake the general interests of the " commune. The public, moreover, being conscious that the poor " have no legal right to support, feel bound in honour to afford it " and acquiesce cheerfully in the expenditure of the communes " and department, even when they do not contribute more directly " by gifts and legacies. It is from the communal customs duties " (*octroi*) that the subsidies which the municipal councils are in " the habit of voting are principally derived; and this tax, which " is applied to many other objects besides the one in ques- " tion, never comes to be regarded as a poor rate. Indeed, it " may be doubted whether many of the persons who pay it re- " member that the money they are losing contributes to the " support of the poor. It would be difficult, therefore, to imagine " a system under which the taxpayer would feel the burden of sup- " porting the poor more lightly, or one creating less hostility " between supporter and supported."

This system which receives the approval of two writers, whose opinions are entitled to great weight, is most fully described in the report of Mr. Hamilton. What that gentleman has done for the whole of France and for Paris M. Flours will be found to have done in his report for the single town of Boulogne-sur-Mer, which thus supplies some details that could hardly be looked for in the more general report of Mr. Hamilton.

The indoor relief for France is administered through the *hospices* and *hospitaux*; the outdoor relief through the *bureaux de bienfaisance*. The *Depôt de Mendicité* is by French writers generally included amongst the establishments for the administration of indoor relief. It is, however, altogether of a penal character, and must be considered as wholly unconnected with poor law administration. The fullest information upon the asylums and hospitals will be found in Mr. Hamilton's report, according to which the number of hospitals and asylums in 1864 was 1,557. From 1837 to 1853 they had remained nearly stationary, at 1,327 and 1,324. Of the total number (1,557), writing in 1869, M. Block gives—

Asylums	-	-	-	-	-	-	415
Hospitals	-	-	-	-	-	-	291
Hospital-Asylum	.	.	-	-	-	-	851
(Combining the character of the two preceding.)							
Total						<u>1,557</u>	

This would give one establishment, whether asylum, hospital, or hospital-asylum for every 23,760 inhabitants. The receipts of these establishments is given by Mr. Hamilton as 76,174,794 francs. M. Adam Block, however, gives the receipts at their disposal, as follows :

—	1853.	1860.	1861.
Ordinary receipts - -	41,154,112	48,766,750	48,011,274
Extraordinary receipts - -	10,709,745	25,727,944	21,930,734
Repayments - -	18,456,179	15,853,488	16,050,527
Balance from preceding year - -	20,379,291	15,534,322	22,449,293
TOTAL - -	85,699,327	105,382,504	108,441,828

The expenditure is given by M. Block :

—	1853.	1861.
Ordinary expenses - - -	53,760,596	68,085,051
Extraordinary expenses - - -	15,832,576	28,705,477
TOTAL - - -	69,593,172	86,790,528

The cost of management, or what we should call "establishment charges," is stated by M. Block to have been in 1853 a little less than one-tenth of the whole expenditure. Between that time and the present it has varied from 8 to 18 per cent. M. Block quotes M. de Watteville as complaining of the excessive number of persons engaged in the hospital service, especially of those of religious orders. As to the efficiency or inefficiency of the management of these establishments there is quite as much diversity of opinion amongst French writers as there is amongst English writers with regard to similar establishments in England.

The number of persons relieved in those establishments was in 1864, 553,060, being 14.80 of every 10,000 inhabitants. This is considerably less than in many preceding years.

The whole of these establishments, no matter whence the funds may be derived, are under State supervision.

The branch of poor law administration, however, the account of which possesses the greatest interest for English readers is the organization of relief through means of the bureau de bienfaisance. The history of the origin and constitution of these institutions will be found fully detailed in Mr. Hamilton's report. Two-thirds of France remain without this means of distributing relief even though the number has within a recent period considerably increased.

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" Until 1867," Mr. Hamilton observes, " the authorization of the Government was requisite before a commune could be provided with one; but, by a law passed in that year, the approval of the prefect was declared to be sufficient, a measure tending much to facilitate and encourage the institution of these humble but excellent establishments."

Two things must always be borne in mind as distinguishing the French bureau de bienfaisance :—

1. Although, owing its origin to private charity, it is under the control of Government,
2. The character of it at present is purely secular.

In these characteristics will probably be found the cause of the marked difference in the result of administration of the systems in France and Belgium. Not that we can accept without question the favourable view of the French system presented to us by Mr. Hamilton and many French writers. By men whose opinion must carry great weight—strenuous supporters of the principle upon which the French system is founded—the constitution of the administration is strongly objected to. M. Bechard, who regards the *bureau de bienfaisance* as "*la meilleure forme de la charité légale*," says of it in France, "*Nos bureaux de bienfaisance sont tout à la fois trop nombreux, mal répartis et mal ordonnés.*" And whatever may be said in favour of them, they are undoubtedly, as will be seen, open to these objections; while, as to results of administration, opinion, it will be found, is by no means uniformly favourable.

Notwithstanding the facilities afforded by recent legislation for the formation of these bureaux, only about 13,000 communes out of 37,000 are comprised within the administration of these institutions. They embrace, according to M. Block, about one-half the population of France. The bureau de bienfaisance is administered as is the hospital, by a commission of five members (in Paris twelve) unpaid, who have the assistance of a paid receiver and a paid secretary. The functions of the bureau are to administer outdoor relief, *secours à domicile*, to which the French attach great importance. Even the sick are relieved in their houses, in preference to sending them to the hospital, upon the ground stated by M. Watteville, that even that form of indoor relief has a tendency "*rompre les liens de famille.*" The officers, as we should term them, who are at the service of the commission of each bureau, are a certain number of medical men and of sisters of charity. The administration of medical relief in France is organised, it will be seen, upon a principle different

from ours, and more in accordance with the dispensary system. There are many points of resemblance between the mode of administration of a *bureau de bienfaisance* and that of an English union. The applications for relief are heard and determined by the commission of the bureau as in an English union by the board of guardians. The cases are inquired into and reported upon the same principle, though in a very different manner. In England, a relieving officer, who may have several hundred cases on his books, receives the application and ascertains with more or less accuracy the facts upon which the guardians are expected to decide upon the application. A great deal more importance appears to be attached in France than in this country to this investigation of cases. It is conducted generally by sisters of charity. In an English town of the size of Boulogne-sur-Mer there would probably be one relieving officer, or at the most two; in Boulogne there are eleven sisters of charity, who have board and lodging, and are paid 500 francs a year each. Each of them has charge of a special quarter of the town, under the direction of a member of the commission, their duty as visitors being strictly prescribed. They are to visit applicants at their houses, to give their counsel and sympathy to the sick, to see that all young children are vaccinated, that all those of school age attend school regularly, to report sanitary defects in the dwellings, to distribute the relief ordered by the bureau, to prepare soup and bouillon, to make up the simpler prescriptions, and distribute and to take charge of all the stores of relief in kind, and to present to each meeting of the bureau a report rather more minute but essentially of the same character as that presented, or supposed to be presented, by a relieving officer to a board of guardians. Opportunities were afforded to me of ascertaining by personal examination and inquiry at Tours and at Boulogne-sur-Mer how these duties were discharged. Of their devotion to the service in which they are engaged, and of the general intelligence of the *sœurs de charité*, it is impossible to speak too highly. The system of inquiry is very full, very minute, and conducted in a way that is said, and no doubt truly, to be acceptable to the poorer classes of the French people, though it would certainly be considered inquisitorial by applicants for relief in this country. Some of the reports which I examined, made by the "sisters" for the information of their bureaux, appear to me to be models of what such reports ought to be. No particular appeared to be omitted which could assist the bureau in deciding upon the merits of the application.

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What will most forcibly strike a reader who examines the accounts of the French system will be the very small amount of relief distributed in individual cases. It is this system of doles, just enough to pauperise without being enough to relieve, that probably elicited from M. de Watteville this opinion, approvingly quoted by M. Laurent :

“ Quant à la moyenne générale des secours, elle est tout à “ fait insuffisante, et l'on peut dire hardiment que, si la moyenne “ dont il s'agit n'était pas distribuée aux pauvres, ces derniers “ n'en seraient pas plus malheureux. Que peuvent produire “ en effet quelques centimes dépensés en achats de viande, de “ vin, de vêtements, de combustible, &c.? Rien ; et l'on peut “ affirmer que l'indigent ne souffrirait pas davantage si ces secours “ dérisoires, distribués si uniformément et avec une complète in- “ intelligence, cessaient de lui être donnés mensuellement. Depuis “ 60 ans que l'administration de l'assistance publique à domicile “ exerce son initiative, on n'a jamais vu un seul indigent retiré “ de la misère et pouvant subvenir à ses besoins par les efforts “ et l'aide de ce mode de charité. Au contraire, elle constitue “ souvent le paupérisme à l'état héréditaire. Ainsi nous voyons “ aujourd'hui inscrits sur les contrôles de cette administration “ les petits-fils des indigents admis aux secours publics en 1802 “ alors que le fils avait été, en 1830, porté également sur ces “ tables fatales.”

The annual value of relief given varies from 56 frs. 84 c. the highest, to 1 fr. 51 c. the lowest. The average for all the departments, as given by Mr. Hamilton, is 11 frs. 55 c., an amount of assistance of which M. Laurent says, "*Le secours n'apporte pas même une atténuation passagère à la misère du pauvre.*"

The receipts of the bureaux de bienfaisance, as Mr. Hamilton states, are derived from various sources ; lands, houses, woods, mortgages, State and communal bonds. Considerable sums are also obtained from gifts and legacies, from a tax of 10 per cent. on all tickets sold at theatres and other places of public entertainment, from certain fines and confiscations, from numerous collections made in churches and from house to house, from poor-boxes, from a share of one-third on the price paid for graves, and, finally, from the customary municipal subsidy, which in the department of the Seine (Paris) amounts to more than half of the whole receipts, whilst in the provinces it scarcely exceeds one-sixth.

The total of the ordinary receipts from these various sources for 1866, as given by Mr. Hamilton, was—

		Francs.	FRANCE.
For the Provinces	- - -	16,148,964	—
For Paris (Seine)	- - -	3,458,000	—
Total for France	- - -	<u>19,606,964</u>	—

A more detailed account of the receipts will be found in Mr. Hamilton's report. The following statement of expenditure is sufficiently interesting to justify its being reproduced here :—

—	Seine (Paris).	Other Depart- ments.	France.
Expenses	Fr. 16·18	Fr. 19·36	Fr. 18·61
Relief given	83·87	80·64	81·39
		100·00	

The following schedule shows the amount spent on each of these two accounts for the same year (1861) :—

—	Seine (Paris).	Other Depart- ments.	Whole of France.
Expenses of administration	Fr. 748,387	Fr. 3,009,136	Fr. 8,757,523
Relief given	8,889,540	12,540,206	16,429,746
Investments	41,273	8,794,651	8,885,924
Totals	4,679,200	19,848,998	24,028,198
	or £187,168	£773,759	£960,927

Thus, for the year in question, we find that the expenditure of the bureaux de bienfaisance (960,927*L*) considerably exceeds their revenue (915,265*L*.) This deficit is explained by the fact that a large surplus (29 per cent.) remained over from the previous year.

The sum actually spent on relief (16,429,746 fr., or 657,189*L*.) may be proportionally divided as follows :—

Food	- - -	- - -	50·70
Clothes	- - -	- - -	5·66
Fuel	- - -	- - -	3·77
Medicine and medical attendance	- - -	- - -	6·27
Other sorts of relief	- - -	- - -	12·06
Pecuniary assistance	- - -	- - -	21·54
			<u>100·00</u>

FRANCE.

In some of those numerous communes which are without bureaux de bienfaisance *bureaux de charité* are established, and there is also organized a gratuitous system of medical service. This service is organized for 47 departments comprising 18,799 communes. "It is supported," Mr. Hamilton reports, "partly by the communes, partly by the departments, and it receives contributions from the neighbouring bureaux de bienfaisance. The State also grants in the case of some departments a subsidy, which varies from 500 to 5,000 francs (20*l.* to 200*l.*) The physicians employed are appointed by the prefect, and receive a small annual remuneration; and the indigent peasants, in order to be relieved, must be inscribed on a list drawn up by the communal authorities."

For reasons which are stated further on, I do not refer here to the numbers alleged to be in receipt of relief throughout France. The information which we possess upon the subject is so imperfect that no conclusion or comparison can be safely drawn from it. But the report of M. Flour upon the administration of Boulogne-sur-Mer enables us to test by the example of a single town the accuracy of that very low estimate of pauperism and expenditure that is sometimes appealed to as illustrating the excellence of the French system.

Boulogne is a prosperous town, with a population according to the census of 1866 of 40,251 inhabitants. The total number of persons relieved in 1870 was 5,889 individuals (1,424 families), or 14·63 per cent. upon the population. It is quite true, and the facts should always be borne in mind in speaking of the rate of pauperism in France, that this proportion includes a very large number who in England would be relieved not as paupers, but by private charity. It is also true, however, that many deserving cases are left unrelieved simply because there are no means of assisting them. In England there is a certain amount of pauperism, and, cost what it may, it must be relieved. In France there is only a certain amount to be distributed in relief, and it is doled out not to all the necessitous but to the most necessitous. In this country pauperism is the measure of expenditure; in France, the amount available for expenditure is the measure of its pauperism. Speaking of the lists of poor that are submitted to the bureau, M. Flour says, "On porte dans leur formation de la sévérité, comme il est impossible de secourir tous les pauvres, et que ceux qui sont secourus ne peuvent l'être que dans une proportion inférieure à leurs besoins, il y a un choix à faire, et la justice, ainsi que l'humanité, exigent que ce choix soit en faveur des plus malheureux."

Of the 5,889 individuals relieved, no fewer than 3,291 were children.

FRANCE.

I am disposed to think that the 14 per cent. of pauperism in Boulogne is not exceptionally high. In Tours I found about nine per cent. relieved by the bureau de bienfaisance alone. Careful inquiry would, I am sure, show a much higher rate in less favoured places.

The cost of the relief in Boulogne is thus stated:—

			Francs.	Cents.
Bread	-	-	26,278	82
Fuel	-	-	3,664	13
General provision	-	-	898	73
Linen, &c.	-	-	3,198	23
Cash	-	-	1,699	30
 Total			<hr/>	<hr/>
			35,739	21
			<hr/>	<hr/>

That relief distributed amongst 5,889 persons, assuming with M. Flour that each person was in receipt of relief for half a year, would give an average of about 12 francs for each person. This is a fraction more than the average (11.55) given by Mr. Hamilton for the whole of France.

Any account of the system of poor relief in France would be incomplete without referring to the various institutions upon which dependance is placed as means of prevention. The spirit of French legislation and the direction of French opinion upon the subject of such institutions cannot be more accurately conveyed than they are in the extract already quoted from the unpublished work of M. Adam Block. That passage epitomises the views of many writers, and the information that is scattered through many volumes.

A very clear idea of the operation of these institutions may be had from the account given of them by M. Flour for the single town of Boulogne-sur-Mer. We may form some estimate of the value of one of them, the *Mont de Piété* to the poorer classes, or rather of the use made of it by them, from the fact that of the total number of loans, 54,428, as many as 34,438 were for sums between one and five francs, and of 54,428 "pledges" deposited 45,425 were linen and wearing apparel. Though it would be out of place here, an inquiry into the constitution and effect of this system of State pawnbroking would be interesting in connexion with the condition of urban pauperism in France.

Attention has recently been drawn to the decrease of the rural

FRANCE.

as compared with the town populations in several departments. For this, I have heard assigned as a cause the absence of any system of public relief in so many rural communes and the comparative facility of obtaining assistance in the towns. Some useful information will, no doubt, be given upon the subject in a report recently presented I am informed, though as yet unpublished, to the Minister of Agriculture upon public relief in the country districts.

BELGIUM.

The information upon the poor law system of Belgium contained in the report by Sir Henry Barron, though compressed, is full and complete upon every point. The statistics of this report enable us to estimate more accurately perhaps than in any other country except England the actual proportion of pauperism to population not only in the whole kingdom, but in the several provinces. The causes to which, in the opinion of the writer, may be ascribed the very unsatisfactory state of things in this "classic land of pauperism" are plainly indicated and should be examined with attention, as upon some points of importance—the effect of the minute subdivision of land, for example—the views of the writer rather clash with those of other authorities upon the same subject.

In Belgium, there is, properly speaking, no poor rate—the burden of supporting the poor being "thrown upon private charity "stimulated, husbanded, and regulated by the State." In most communes sufficient funds for the support of the poor are provided by the proceeds of former endowments aided by "a constant flow "of donations and bequests."

For the administration of these funds there are organized, as in France, two classes of institutions—"Hospices Civils" for indoor relief and "bureaux de bienfaisance" for out door. While, in France, the law still throws some difficulty in the way of the formation of bureaux de bienfaisance, in Belgium "every commune is by law bound to establish" one. The members of the boards of management of the hospices and of the bureaux de bienfaisance "are appointed by the common council by selection from two " lists of candidates, one presented by the board itself, the other " by the College of Bourgmestre and Aldermen. The members " may be dismissed by the 'Députation Permanente' of the " province at the instance of the board itself or of the Common " Council. Both boards are under the immediate supervision of " the college. The bourgmestre presides over their meetings " whenever he pleases, but only with a deliberative voice. Each

" board appoints its own vice-president, as also a 'receveur' and
 " 'ordonnateur,' who are responsible for the financial adminis-
 " tration. The functions of members are essentially honorary.
 " The receveur may be paid, but in many cases acts gratuitously."

Sir Henry Barron states that the number of paupers relieved in the several provinces of Belgium was—

	Number of Paupers.		Amount of Relief.
In 1858	662,587	-	9,720,785 frs. (388,830 <i>l.</i>)
In 1868	550,000	-	10,673,792 frs. (426,941 <i>l.</i>)

Referring to this return, Sir Henry Barron says, "I have reason to know that this large decrease of the numbers relieved is entirely fictitious. It would seem from this table that the numbers of paupers relieved had diminished in a very large proportion during the decennial period here reviewed; but such is not the case. The ratio of paupers relieved to the population was 11·4 per cent. in 1868. The numbers of paupers registered would be still greater. The expenses incurred by their relief amounted to 1*s.* 9*½d.* per head of the population, and to 15*s.* 6*d.* for every pauper relieved. These figures are of course irrespective of the paupers relieved in the numerous hospices, and of those relieved solely by private charity."

The amount per head given in relief is calculated in this report as being for 1858—9 frs., and for 1868—16 frs. 50 c. Attention is called by Sir Henry Barron to a very remarkable peculiarity in the pauperism and expenditure of the several provinces. It appears that while the pauperism of the whole kingdom in the year 1868 was 11·3 per cent. that of the province of Luxembourg was only 2·2. In a subsequent part of the report Luxembourg appears to have "next to no revenue for the poor, yet no complaints of dearth and distress ever come from that quarter."

As to the effect of Belgium poor laws upon the character and condition of the people, Sir Henry Barron quotes the following remarkable passage from the preamble of a Bill introduced into the Chamber by Baron Keroyne, late Minister of the Interior:

" Aussi a-t-on constaté dans tous les pays, et notamment en Angleterre, où l'intervention de la bienfaisance publique a été poussée aux plus extrêmes exagérations, que plus la charge est accablante pour la production et le travail, plus elle reste stérile pour ceux qui en profitent; car l'indigent loin de se relever par le secours public dans l'ordre matériel ou dans l'ordre moral, loin d'atteindre une situation meilleure à mesure que ce secours s'accroît et se perpétue, se sent entraîné davantage par l'oisiveté dans la misère et dans la dégradation. Une longue expérience

BELGIUM.

“ atteste également en Belgique que les charges des communes ont
 “ subi une progression effrayante, et que les sacrifices exigés des
 “ Éléments les plus honnêtes de la population ont été trop souvent
 “ absorbés sans fruit par des individualités honteuses et méprisables.”

Sir Henry Barron thinks it is certain that the rich endowment and provision for the relief of the poor during many centuries have had a main share in producing the mischief which they were intended to remedy. But the first cause to which he ascribes the high rate of pauperism of Belgium is the excessive density of the population. With reference to this the following statement should receive particular attention:—

“ The Austrian and French Governments are both responsible
 “ for having promoted the excess of population by promoting the
 “ excessive sub-division of the land. The average size of fee
 “ simple estates in E. Flanders is $5\frac{6}{100}$ acres. Half the holdings
 “ in the province are of less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ acre each. This evidently
 “ acts as a cause as well as an effect of the density and consequent
 “ poverty of the population, which two features taken conjointly
 “ are more marked here than in any other province of Europe.
 “ The population of E. Flanders amounts to 294 per square
 “ kilometre, or 741 per English square mile.

The excessive increase of population, Sir Henry Barron thinks, has been greatly stimulated by the excessive amount of assistance and alms provided by public and private charity, “ the regular
 “ inscription of the poor,” he goes on to say, “ extending to a
 “ third of the working class, gives to the recipients an undue
 “ advantage in competition with other workmen not so favoured,
 “ tends to lower the general scale of wages in Belgium, and to
 “ throw all ‘upon the rates.’ The Statistical Congress of 1853
 “ recognizes the division of working men into three classes, viz.:
 “ 1, indigent families relieved by public charity; 2, poor families
 “ not so relieved; 3, well to do independent workmen. An official
 “ return of 1857 showed that the great mass of the working class
 “ came under the first two categories. Of 908,000 families then
 “ existing in Belgium, 446,000, or about half, were returned as
 “ in indigent circumstances, of whom 26,600 lived on public
 “ charity. The number of beggars was set down at 88,019.”

VAGRANCY.**VAGRANCY IN FRANCE.**

Under the poor law system of nearly all European countries provision is made for the suppression or punishment of vagrancy. The existing laws upon the subject retain a good deal of the rigorous and repressive character of the older enactments that they

are intended to replace, and although modified in accordance with the more humane spirit of a later age, the history of them would seem to belong less to the annals of poor law than of criminal legislation. Generally speaking these laws have failed to effect the objects for which they were enacted. One consequence, and perhaps not the least important, of their failure will be found in the fact that it is leading, in several countries in Europe, to the formation of societies for organising private charity in order to supply the defects or supplement the action of poor law legislation. These two subjects may therefore be probably referred to in connection with each other.

VAGRANCY IN
FRANCE.

In France the legislation for the suppression of mendicity is founded upon the decree of July 5, 1809. The instruction of the Emperor runs "Les choses devraient être établies de manière " qu'on pût dire :—'Tout mendicant sera arrêté.' Mais l'arrêter " pour le mettre en prison serait barbare ou absurde. Il faut donc " une ou plusieurs maisons de charité par département." The decree founded upon this instruction declares,—" La mendicité serait dé- " fendue dans tout le territoire de l'Empire ; que les mendians " de chaque département seraient arrêtés et conduits dans le " dépôt de mendicité de ce département, aussitôt que ce dépôt " serait établi et que les formalités suivantes auraient été " remplies : que dans les quinze jours qui suivraient l'établisse- " ment et l'organisation de chaque dépôt de mendicité, le préfet " du département ferait connaître par un avis que ledit dépôt " étant établi et organisé, tous les individus mendiant et n'ayant " aucun moyen de subsistance, seraient tenus de s'y rendre ; que " cet avis serait publié et répété dans toutes les communes du " département pendant trois dimanches consécutifs ; qu'à dater " de la troisième publication, tout individu qui serait trouvé " mendiant dans ledit département, serait arrêté d'après les ordres " de l'autorité locale et par les soins de la gendarmerie ; qu'il " serait aussitôt conduit au dépôt de mendicité ; que les mendians " vagabonds seraient arrêtés et conduits dans les maisons de " détention." It was also enacted—"chaque dépôt de mendicité " serait créé et organisé par un décret particulier, que les dépen- " ses de l'établissement du dépôt seraient faites concurremment " par le Trésor public, les départements et les villes, que dans le " mois de la publication de ce décret les préfets adresseraient au " Ministre de l'Interieur un rapport sur l'établissement du dépôt " de mendicité de leur département." Article 274 of the penal code, modified by the law of April 28, 1832, provides—"Toute " personne qui aura été trouvée mendiant dans un lieu pour

VAGRANCI IN FRANCE. " lequel il existera un établissement public organisé afin d'obvier à la mendicité, sera puni de trois à six mois d'emprisonnement, et sera, après l'expiration de sa peine, conduite au dépôt de mendicité." Article 275 continues,—“ Dans les lieux où il n'existe point encore de tels établissements, les mendians d'habitude, valides, seront punis d'un mois à trois mois d'emprisonnement, et que, s'ils sont arrêtés hors du canton de leur résidence, ils seront punis d'un emprisonnement de six mois à deux ans.” In accordance with the suggestion of the instruction and the provision of the decree, about 40 dépôts de mendicité were established. These were to be “ paternal establishments,” “ où la bienfaisance devait tempérer la contrainte par la douceur, maintenir la discipline par l'affection, et ramener le sentiment d'une honte salutaire.” These philanthropic institutions do not appear to have answered the expectations of the founders. “ Les dépenses,” says M. Bechard, “ excéderent de beaucoup les prévisions, et ne servirent qu'à alimenter la fainéantise des détenus et un redoublement d'audace des mendians qu'on n'avait pu admettre.” The beggars proved to be in every sense “ too many ” for the Emperor. They made light of him who made light of kings—“ Les mendians,” says Fodéré, “ se moquèrent de celui qui se moquait des rois. Il a passé et la mendicité est restée.” The dépôt de mendicité, Mr. Hamilton remarks, “ which bears some resemblance to the English workhouse, is a departmental establishment intended rather for the punishment of the offence of begging than for the relief of the poor.” If, however, the two dépôts de mendicité of the department of the Seine are fair examples of those throughout France, they have certainly very little resemblance to an English workhouse. The establishment in the old Chateau of Francis I. at Villers Coterets is simply an almshouse to which admittance is gained as a favour, and where the poor old people appear to be well cared for. Aged and infirm, the worn-out pauperism of Paris, are now the occupants of those magnificent apartments in which, M. Du Camp reminds us, Louis the Fourteenth received the Princess Palatine, the mother of the future Regent, on the eve of her marriage. During the year 1869 the admissions to this dépôt were 222 men and 58 women; discharged 123 men and 65 women. Upon the 31st of December 1869 the number in the dépôt was 496 men and 315 women; the deaths in the course of the year were 124 men and 79 women. The dépôt at Saint Denis differs from that at Villers Coterets inasmuch as it is really a *maison de répression*. Until 1808 Saint Denis was the only dépôt de mendicité for the whole

department of the Seine, and practically it continues to be the only one still, for Villers Cotterets is, as I have observed, not a dépôt de mendicité, but a mixture of hospital and asylum. The management of this dépôt is said to be good; that is, the most refractory members of the most refractory class of the population of Paris, when committed for their term of imprisonment, are described as orderly and industrious, earning within the period of their incarceration a sum sufficient to support them for some time after their liberation. But the whole aspect of the place is exceedingly repulsive. "La maison de répression de Saint Denis," says M. Maxime Du Camp, "est la plus immonde cloaque qui se puisse voir." To this very clever delineator of certain aspects of the social life of Paris it is inconceivable that at the very gates of the city, in this age and under the direct administration of the state, there should be suffered to exist a place "*si particulièrement délabré, pourri et malsain.*" Anyone who will take the trouble to visit the place will share his astonishment. There appears to be a pretty general concurrence of opinion amongst French writers as to the failure of these *dépôts de mendicité*. In a report upon the suppression of mendicity presented to the Municipal Council of Brest in 1868 it is observed that, although frequently recalled to the notice of local authorities by ministerial communications, the decree of 1808 remained a dead letter. A few dépôts only were established, and these rather as asylums for the aged and infirm than as "*maisons de répression.*" "*Detournés de leur véritable destination,*" says this report, "*ces établissements ne purent résister à deux causes de destruction contre lesquelles ils eurent à combattre; le luxe de leur organisation et le changement fondamental qui s'opéra en 1815 dans les principes du gouvernement.*

"D'une part, des abus sans nombre dans leur administration, un état-major considérable, des admissions sans limite et sans règle, un régime trop généreux, firent des dépôts des lieux de retraite fort doux où la paresse venait trop souvent chercher un abri; de l'autre, des scrupules exagérés, quoique honorables dans leur principe, firent considérer à tort la répression de la mendicité comme une atteinte à la religion, et dès lors une sorte d'éloignement se manifesta contre cette institution qui n'avait d'ailleurs pas atteint son but. Aussi, bien que le décret en vertu duquel les dépôts ont été créés n'ait jamais été abrogé, les préfets se hâtèrent-ils de fermer ces établissements, et la mendicité, dégagée de ses entraves, multiplia ses ravages sous les yeux de l'administration impuissante et désarmée."

In a very interesting report addressed to the Conseil Général

VAGRANCY IN FRANCE. de la Seine Inférieure in August 1873, M. Waddington, however, a most competent authority, appears to take a more favourable view of these institutions. In 1852, he observes, there were only 12 dépôts in the whole of France; while in 1862, according to the report of M. Hamon, a member of the council general of the Sarthe, there were 56 departments that had either dépôts de mendicité for themselves or in conjunction with others. M. Waddington is able to cite in support of his recommendation to establish a dépôt for the Seine-Inférieure the authority of more than one official in other places. He is also able, upon the authority of the intelligent superintendent of the dépôt de mendicité of Montreuil-sous-Laon, to speak in very favourable terms of at least one of these institutions. Referring to the inmates of that dépôt the superintendent, M. Bertaut, says:—“*Cette population, composée “d’éléments si divers, et qui compte un grand nombre de repris “de justice, est soumise, obéissante et facile à diriger. Ce n’est “pas à dire qu’on n’ait parfois des actes répréhensibles à punir, “mais ils sont relativement fort rares, et plutôt le fait de cer- “taines individualités qu’inhérents à l’esprit même de la population, “qui, on le répète, est généralement bon.*”

Having given a detailed account of the state of vagrancy in the department, M. Waddington recommends as a remedy for an evil of a very pressing character,—1, the establishment of bureaux de bienfaisance (in other words the organization of charity) in all the communes in which they do not at present exist; and upon their establishment, 2, the formation, in connection with neighbouring departments, of a dépôt de mendicité. The course recommended by M. Waddington at Rouen has been, he states, successfully adopted in other places.

In the report already referred to, upon the suppression of mendicity in Brest, the mode of assisting the poor is very fully considered, and the reporter recommends that, in addition to relief by the bureaux de bienfaisance, there should be formed a committee upon the same principle as the Society for the Organization of Charity in England. Mendicity should be treated by the dépôt de mendicité, pauperism by the bureau de bienfaisance, and poverty by a committee, who would receive subscriptions from the citizens, and to whom all applications for assistance should be referred for inquiry and relief. Such an organization is declared to be rendered necessary by the proportions and the aggravated character that mendicity had assumed. The results of this organization, as stated in the report of M. le Tersec for the following year, appears to be most satisfactory. Vagrants had

completely disappeared ; some had resumed habits of industry, VAGRANCY IN
FRANCE.
others had betaken themselves to towns in which no such organization exists ; and the resources of charity are found to be sufficient, when properly administered, to meet the wants of all the deserving poor.

Like every other part of the poor law system of Belgium, the mode of dealing with vagrants is most fully described in the report of Sir Henry Barron. In Belgium, as in France, begging was prohibited by the decree of the 5th of July 1808, and *dépôts de mendicité* were created. "These became," Sir Henry Barron says, "great hostellries for supplying board, lodging, and congenial society to all the profligates of the country at the public expense." This system of "free admission," which appears to resemble closely the system of providing vagrant wards and asylums for the houseless poor in England, was found to be "intolerably expensive, and perfectly ineffectual as a means of repression." Recourse was had in 1866 to much more severe legislation, which is fully described by Sir Henry Barron, and which he states has "already borne good fruits." Mr. Grattan, in his report from Antwerp, says :—

"As regards the treatment of mendicants, it may be observed that very few are to be met with in Antwerp or its vicinity. Mendicity being prohibited by law, the police are charged to arrest any persons without occupation and found begging, and send them to the establishments termed *dépôts de mendicité*, of which there are four in Belgium, and where they are detained at the expense of the authorities of the *commune* or township to which they belong. These *dépôts* are in fact houses of correction where the vagrants are imprisoned, and remain until claimed or released by their own *commune*."

In Germany there appears to be no uniform system of dealing with vagrants. Mr. Plunkett refers to the laws of the old German empire prohibiting begging and vagrancy as the first germ of the systems of poor law now in force. These systems have heretofore differed in the several states. Mr. Crowe, in his report of the system in Leipzig, gives a succinct account of the provisions of the North German Union Criminal Code, which may now be regarded as the vagrant law of the German empire. The local police arrangements of Coburg, Carlsruhe, and Hamburg are of the same repressive character. Indeed, it may be said of all continental legislation, with hardly an exception, that it is what Mr. Emminghaus calls a legislation of repression. Out of

GERMANY.

England vagrancy is uniformly dealt with by police regulations, generally very harsh in their character.

**VAGRANCY IN
AUSTRIA.**

In Austria a law is now before the Reichsrath by which idlers and vagrants will be placed under the charge of the police. The laws at present in force are extremely severe, including deportation by forced marches, or under escort.

BAVARIA.

Persons convicted of vagrancy or begging in Bavaria may be sentenced to hard labour, either within or without a penal establishment, and in certain cases may be imprisoned for a period of two years with hard labour. This treatment may be applied, not only to beggars and tramps, but to persons who will not work and those who make a living by immoral practices. In Hamburg beggars and vagrants are punished with one or two days imprisonment for the first offence, which is increased to four weeks for subsequent cases, and finally to two years imprisonment with hard labour for confirmed vagrancy.

CARLSRUHE.

The former enactments for the punishment of vagrants in Carlsruhe, minute and exceedingly severe, are now replaced by the imperial penal code, under which the vagrant is handed over to the police and punished by imprisonment for various periods, according to the gravity of the offence.

COBURG.

In Coburg vagrants are punished by the police, and if they have no domicile in the duchy to which they can be removed, are banished from it.

ITALY.

Of the treatment of vagrancy and mendicancy in Italy a full and very interesting account is given in the report of Sir Augustus Paget. As in other European countries vagrancy is punishable by the police, but while in France begging is not an offence where there is no dépôt de mendicité, Italy is the only country in which a certificate of poverty and inability to work is in fact a license to beg within the district. Even the licensed beggar, however, is forbidden to exhibit his sores or deformities, to carry a heavy stick, to use threats, or to beg by night. Although the whole of Sir Augustus Paget's report is sure to be read with interest, two passages may be reproduced here, as illustrating the character of Italian mendicancy at different periods :—

“ During the greater part of the 17th and 18th centuries there existed a regularly authorized beggar's society, designated by the name of the Company of S. Elizabeth. It had between 400 and 500 members, each of whom contributed two *bajocchi* and a half (about twopence halfpenny) a month towards the expenses of

religious ceremonies, of which there were many. Once a year VAGRANCY IN the blind, led by the lame, went in penitential procession with a military escort to visit four churches. Penalties were inflicted on members of the company who fail to pay their subscriptions, or were wanting in due respect to their superior officers. No one was allowed to beg in the streets who was not a member. Children, able-bodied men and women, and foreigners, were excluded. Strangers, however, were sometimes allowed to beg in the winter on payment of the ordinary subscription. All the members of the company were furnished with licenses. They practised begging among themselves, certain of the brethren being charged with the duty of soliciting alms from the rest for those who were ill. On Sundays one of the officers of the company, called *Camerlengo*, who was lame, accompanied by two who were blind, called the *Signore* and the *Guardiano*, went about the town with fiddles and a poet to collect offerings for the feast of the patroness of the society, St. Elizabeth. The custom was to carry a silver basin for contributions, with ten crowns and a silver snuff-box in it, and every one who put money into the former was asked to have a pinch of snuff from the latter. This grotesque trade union, which was founded in 1613 and lasted until the revolution at the end of the 18th century, was placed under the protection of a cardinal. Its last protector was Cardinal York.

* * * * *

"A singular old custom, still existing when he wrote his book, the second edition of which was published in 1870, is described by Cardinal Morichini. A chosen band of forty beggars received special license from the cardinal vicar to take post outside the doors of churches during the solemnity called *The forty hours*, and the devout had to pass on every such occasion between two long rows of vociferous mendicants, whose clamour even disturbed the prayers of the congregation within. Of these privileged beggars about half were blind and the rest cripples. One third of the whole number were women. The age for admission was not fixed, and the license was held during good behaviour. The patronage belonged to the cardinal vicar, who appointed to vacant places."

In Denmark beggars on conviction are imprisoned for fifteen days on bread and water; vagrants for thirty days. A vagrant with no apparent means of subsistence may be sent home to his parish by the police. The new poor law of Sweden provides for the punishment of vagrancy and mendicity by hard labour for not less than one month nor more than six, and of conveyance to

VAGRANCY IN ITALY. — their place of settlement. In Russia mendicancy appears to be tolerated more than in the other countries just referred to. The regulations for their punishment, indeed, are sufficiently stringent, but they do not appear to be very rigidly enforced. In Poland there are no restrictions on professional mendicancy, and "owing " to the Slave superstition," says the report, "that it is unlucky " to refuse the application of a beggar, the professional mendicant "makes a prosperous career." There are laws for the suppression of mendicancy in Portugal, but it may be doubted whether they are enforced with any degree of strictness.

Although we are without any report upon them, the institutions of Spain for the relief of the poor have a history of considerable interest. A memoir upon the subject of them by Count d'Alfaro and Dr. Nieto Serrano, read at the International Congress of 1862, will repay perusal, especially with reference to hospitals and asylums. When Townsend visited the hospital at Barcelona and the work-houses of Cadiz and Grenada he noticed points of administration that had anticipated improvements in our own; and, notwithstanding the incoherent vituperation of Mr. Ford, some of the lunatic asylums of Spain would have contrasted favourably with those in England of the same period. Even to-day a foreigner in an English asylum could not be treated with more kindness and considerate gentleness than was an English girl whom any visitor might have seen, as I saw her, some fifteen years ago in the hospital *de los locos* at Cadiz.

CONCLUSION. — The reader of these Reports will probably feel that there is no part of the inquiry into the system of poor relief in foreign countries upon which it is more difficult to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion than as to what is the effect of any particular system upon the population of the country in which it is established. Still greater will be found the difficulty of instituting a comparison between the systems of different countries. Materials for such a comparison are wanting. England is the only country in Europe in which all the details and results of poor law administration are patent and can be fairly estimated. No blot upon our system is hidden. The most searching inquiries have laid bare all the evils of it, whatever they may be, and no foreign critics have been more unsparing in their condemnation of the abuses of English poor law administration than have been our own legislators and public writers. When the Committee of the National Assembly of France described our poor laws as *la plaie politique la plus dévorante de l'Angleterre*, they did not condemn those laws more

strongly than did the Commissioners who framed the Act of CONCLUSION.
 1834. When Franklin wrote "There is no country in the
 " world where so many provisions are established for the poor as
 " in England, so many hospitals to receive them when they are
 " sick or lame, founded and maintained by voluntary charities ;
 " besides a general law made by the rich for the support of the
 " poor. Under all these obligations, are the poor modest,
 " humble, thankful, industrious ? On the contrary, it may be
 " affirmed that there is no country in the world in which the
 " poor are more idle, dissolute, drunken, and insolent. The day
 " the Parliament passed that law it took away from before their
 " eyes the greatest of all inducements to industry, frugality, and
 " sobriety, by giving them a dependence on somewhat else than
 " a careful accumulation during youth and health for support in
 " old age and sickness,"—he but anticipated the opinion ex-
 pressed, not less forcibly because in more moderate terms, by the
 Committee of Mr. Sturges Bourne of 1817 :—

" A compulsory contribution for the indigent from the funds
 " originally accumulated from the labour and industry of others
 " could not fail in process of time, with the increase of population
 " which it was calculated to foster, to produce the unfortunate
 " effect of abating those exertions on the part of the labouring
 " classes on which, according to the nature of things, the happy-
 " ness and welfare of mankind has been made to rest. By dimi-
 " nishing this natural impulse by which men are instigated to
 " industry and good conduct, by superseding the necessity of pro-
 " viding in the season of health and vigour for the wants of sickness
 " and old age, and by making poverty and misery the conditions
 " on which relief is to be obtained, your committee cannot but
 " fear, from a reference to the increased numbers of the poor, and
 " the increased and increasing amount of the sums raised for their
 " relief, that this system is perpetually encouraging and increasing
 " the amount of misery it was designed to alleviate, creating at the
 " same time an unlimited demand on funds which it cannot
 " augment ; and as every system of relief founded on compulsory
 " enactments must be divested of the character of benevolence, so it
 " is without its beneficial effects ; as it proceeds from no impulse of
 " charity, it creates no feeling of gratitude, and not unfrequently
 " engenders dispositions and habits calculated to separate rather
 " than unite the interests of the higher and lower orders of the
 " community ; even the obligations of natural affection are no
 " longer left to their own impulse, but the mutual support of the

CONCLUSION. " nearest relations has been actually enjoined by a positive law, " which the authority of magistrates is continually required to " enforce. The progress of these evils, which are inherent in the " system itself, appears to have been favoured by the circumstances " of modern times, by an extension of the law in practice, and by " some deviations from its most important provisions. How much " of the complaints which have been referred to your committee " may be attributable to one cause or the other it is perhaps not " easy to ascertain. The result however appears to have been highly " prejudicial to the moral habits, and consequent happiness, of a " great body of the people, who have been reduced to the degrada- " tion of a dependence upon parochial support; while the rest of " the community, including the most industrious class, has been " oppressed by a weight of contribution taken from those very " means which would otherwise have been applied more beneficially " to the supply of employment. And as the funds which each " person can expend in labour are limited in proportion as the " poor rate diminishes those funds, in the same proportion will the " wages of labour be reduced to the immediate and direct pre- " judice of the labouring classes; the system thus producing the " very necessity which it is created to relieve."

Although more than half a century has passed since these sentences were written it will be thought by many that they represent but too faithfully the results of poor law administration gradually arrived at during the last 30 years.

If the poor law administration of different foreign countries was examined with the same care and impartiality and facts collected with the same industry it would be possible to institute a comparison of great interest and value between different systems. But from no two countries can it be said that similar classes of facts are reported and therefore the points upon which it is possible to institute comparison are few and not of the first importance.

The ordinary and most obvious method of comparing the condition of two countries with reference to their pauperism is by comparing the per-centages within a given period of persons relieved and the expenditure on account of relief in each. Such a comparison can be satisfactory only when the terms of the comparison are similar. The care, if not the distrust, with which statistics of pauperism should be accepted is very clearly stated by a French writer of authority in his work "*Le Paupérisme et les Associations de Prévoyance*":—

" Bien des statistiques," writes M. Emile Laurent, " ont été

“ faites, bien des explorations ont été tentées, qui ont voulu se traduire en résultats numériques. Ces statistiques et les comparaisons qui en ressortent pèchent toutes par la base. Avant de faire la statistique de l'indigence, il eût été nécessaire de se mettre d'accord sur ce qui la constitue et de déterminer, pour chaque région explorée, la nature des privations auxquelles il fallait être habituellement soumis, pour être classé au nombre des indigents. L'indigence étant essentiellement, nous l'avons vu, un fait de relation et de contraste, et par rapport aux indigents d'une même région comparés l'un avec l'autre, un terme général de comparaison est à peu près introuvable.

“ Recueiller des documents plus ou moins exacts sur un nombre d'hommes déterminé que trop souvent à volonté et suivant le but, on décrète indigents, établir ensuite des chiffres moyens, telle est la méthode la plus commune et, dans cet ordre de recherches, la plus défectueuse aussi. C'est au moyen de cette méthode qu'on en était arrivé à énoncer, par exemple, que le rapport des indigents à la population générale était de 1 à 6 en Angleterre ; de 1 à 20 en Allemagne ; de 1 à 25 en France, tandis qu'il n'eût été que de 1 à 35 en Espagne, de 1 à 40 en Turquie, de 1 à 100 en Russie ; c'est-à-dire, à faire une énonciation sans valeur réelle, car, où est le niveau auquel on rapportait toutes les inégalités ? C'est au moyen de la même méthode qu'aide de l'esprit de système, on en était venu à conclure que la Russie avec ses serfs, que la Turquie dont les populations courbées sous l'esclavage et le fatalisme sont certainement les plus misérables de l'Europe, que l'Espagne d'il y a vingt-cinq ans avec sa population clair-semée sur un sol en friche ou à peine cultivé, population paresseuse et ignorante, sans activité et sans vigueur, plus dévote, on l'a dit, souvent que religieuse, étaient plus riches en éléments de bonheur et de perfection morale, et par conséquent sans doute plus avancées en civilisation que l'Angleterre, les Pays-Bas, la Suisse, la France et l'Allemagne ; comme s'il y avait à proprement parler des pauvres, là où tout le monde est pauvre ! et comme si l'application aux pays privilégiés de la zone blanche de l'échelle suivie pour la zone sombre, ne relèverait pas aussitôt un nombre d'indigents bien autre encore dans la première que dans la seconde ! C'est enfin au moyen des mêmes procédés de calcul que nous avions eu faire solennellement un procès en forme à l'industrie et au travail, choquer les idées le plus généralement admises, nier la civilisation et le progrès, le progrès auquel, on l'a

CONCLUSION. " fait remarquer souvent depuis, les nations ne sont pas plus fatalement vouées qu'elles ne le sont à la décadence, mais qui, en fait

" a été jusqu'ici l'apanage des plus éclairées et des plus libres.

" Gardons-nous bien d'une pareille méthode et ne cherchons pas
" à compter ce qui échappe, au moins quant à présent, à la science
" des nombres. Ici, comme ailleurs, plus qu'ailleurs peut-être, et
" pour longtemps sans doute, la statistique doit généralement
" borner son ambition à rassembler des matériaux, à faire ça et là
" des trouées et des sondages."

This is a well-timed caution.

By no department of any country in Europe is a nearer approach made to perfect accuracy in the statistics of pauperism than by the Local Government Board of this country in their periodical reports. Yet we know that the results shown must be accepted as approximating only to actual facts. For the purpose of comparing one district with another, or one period with another, the English returns may be accepted as unimpeachable. But for the purpose of comparing the pauperism of England with the pauperism of any foreign country our returns are not merely valueless, they are misleading. A very large proportion of those who swell the pauper rolls of foreign countries from which reports have been received could not be included in returns compiled upon the principle of the English returns. The average pauperism of England is ascertained by taking the numbers in receipt of relief on the 1st of January and the 1st of July in each year. The French statisticians undertake to give the total number actually relieved in the course of the year. This would give for the city of Paris the total number relieved during the year 1869, indoor and outdoor, 317,742; the population for that year being 1,799,880. The return for London of the number in receipt of relief on a given day, July 1, 1869, would be 135,814; population 2,802,367. The French indoor return, it should be remarked, includes all inmates of hospitals of every description. The English indoor return includes only the inmates of workhouses and schools and lunatics (pauper) in workhouses. No comparison, therefore, of any value can be made between the returns of foreign countries that obviously rest upon data so dissimilar. As an illustration of the errors into which we may be led by reliance upon such returns let us take the comparison instituted by Sir Henry Barron between the pauperism of Belgium, England, and France.

CONCLUSION.

Country.	Period.	Number of Paupers relieved per Cent. on Population.	
		Beginning of Period.	End of Period.
England	1855-68	4·80	4·50
France	1858-60	2·85	3·31
Belgium	1844-58	14·16	15·85

For the pauperism of France Sir Henry Barron relies upon the statement in Emminghaus. The English return may be accepted as accurate. From the extreme care bestowed to secure accuracy of statement in the Belgian report we may accept that return without question. But a very brief explanation will show that the return of French pauperism is altogether inaccurate. This is a point of very great importance. If indeed it were true that the French system yielded such a result as less than four per cent. of pauperism, that would go far to justify the favour with which it is regarded by many writers of authority, and to account for the undisguised approval with which it is regarded by one so able and so well informed as Mr. Lee Hamilton. The fact appears to be that Emminghaus, upon whom Sir Henry Barron relies, gives the pauperism of the bureaux de bienfaisance only. But that comprises only about one third of France.

Of the 37,000 communes the exact number, as already stated, in which there were bureaux de bienfaisance was 13,298. Within 33 years, that is since 1833, the number had increased from 6,275. This addition to the number is probably to be ascribed to the greater facilities afforded by recent legislation to the formation of bureaux.

The statistics furnished by Mr. Hamilton, which are the most recent and probably the most authentic that could be obtained, afford no means of ascertaining the actual still less the comparative pauperism of the whole of any one of the departments to which they refer. We have indeed the number of bureaux established within each department, the population of each department, and the number of poor relieved by the bureaux in the communes of each department. But as the bureaux are established, not for departments, but for communes, and there are no returns of the population of those communes for which bureaux are established

CONCLUSION. but only of departments, it is impossible to say what proportion of the population of a department may be subjected to the administration of the bureaux. It is as if boards of guardians existed for separate parishes in England ; that we had the population returns for a whole county but not of separate parishes : that the parochial boards of guardians were established in say 100 out of 300 parishes in a county, and that we had the number of paupers relieved by the 100 parochial boards of whose separate populations we had no returns. Although we should be able to ascertain the number of paupers relieved in 100 parishes and declare the proportion which they bore to the population of the whole county, yet as we should be without any return of pauperism from two-thirds of the parishes of the county, such information would be altogether worthless as an indication of the general rate of pauperism or of its proportion to population. Owing to the defect of French pauper statistics in which there is no enumeration by communes, we are wholly in the dark as to the proportion of pauperism to population unless in some few departments in which a bureaux may happen to be established in every commune. But as this is not shown in any return to which I have had access, it would be unsafe to found any conclusion upon the figures in Mr. Hamilton's report. This will be obvious by a brief reference to the returns of some few of the departments. Take two departments upon opposite coasts of the kingdom, Bouches du Rhône and Calvados. The first has a population of 547,903, the second of 474,909. In the Bouches du Rhone there were in 1866, 59 bureaux, in Calvados 670. The number of poor relieved in the Bouches du Rhone was according to Mr. Hamilton's return 32,598 ; in Calvados for the same period 20,116. Assuming that the figures in the return are accurate, it thus appears that 670 bureaux of Calvados relieved only 20,116, while the 59 of the Bouches du Rhone relieved 32,598. Similar disproportions of the official pauperism to the ascertained population may be observed in nearly all the other departments. Thus the pauperism of Ain, with a population of 371,643, is 2,054 ; of Allier, with a population of 376,164, is 2,925. But Ain has 126 bureaux, while Allier has only 14. The Haute Garonne has 302 bureaux. The Gironde 91. But the former relieved 21,016 out of a population of 493,777 ; while the latter relieved 15,312 out of a population of 701,855. Such apparent anomalies can be accounted for only by assuming that the pauperism of the communes in which bureaux de bienfaisance are established is to each other as is their

population. If we could ascertain the exact population of the Conclusions.
communes that have bureaux in the departments to which I have
just referred it would probably be found that but little difference
existed in per-cent-age of pauperism in each, at least that whatever
difference did exist might be accounted for, as in this country, by
the greater strictness or laxity of administration.

Sir Henry Barron, in the comparison to which I have already
referred, relies upon the return in the report of Emminghaus.
That report is written by M. Block, a very high authority upon
economical and statistical subjects, from whose unpublished book
I have already, with his permission, extracted some passages.
M. Block conjectures that the administration of bureaux de bien-
faisance embraces one half of the population of France. Although
the bureaux are established in only about one third of the com-
munes, yet as all the large towns and most populous communes are
comprised in that number, the assumption of M. Block is probably
well founded. The return, therefore, upon which Sir Henry
Barron relies, would represent the pauperism of only one half of
France, and that not the poorest half. I am inclined to think
that an accurate return of French pauperism would yield a result
very little different from that of Belgium.

R E P O R T.

Report on Poor Law in SWEDEN, by Nassau Jocelyn.

THE legal provision for the poor hitherto in force in Sweden was in many respects defective; it did not provide sufficiently stringent measures for the suppression of mendicity and imposture, while it was often necessary to unduly strain its meaning to meet the cases of the really deserving and indigent paupers.

The new law was passed by the Chambers of the Diet last year, and is now in force throughout the country. Some of its provisions are founded upon the existing poor law in Great Britain and the United States, and the measure owes its origin and final adoption to the late Mr. Kinmanson, a judge in the Court of Exchequer, to whose exertions in framing it testimony is universally borne.

1. As the best way of replying to the first query, I annex a translation of the poor law which is now in force in Sweden.

The general principle upon which poor relief in this country is based, is to be found in the first paragraph of that enactment, namely, that any person under 15 years of age, or anyone rendered incapable of obtaining by labour the adequate means of maintaining life, who is destitute of other personal resources, and does not enjoy the care and support of others, is entitled to receive such relief from the State as is absolutely necessary.

Every able-bodied person, however, is expected to maintain himself, his wife, and children, as a legal obligation.

So also parents and children are mutually bound to maintain each other as far as circumstances permit.

Manufacturers and other employers of labour are, moreover, expected to maintain the persons in their service, so as to prevent their becoming chargeable to the union.

Special provisions are also made for the relief of extraordinary cases, as of children attending schools, released prisoners, and destitute persons being nursed at hospitals, at a distance from the places to which they belong.

The provisions of the law are supplemented to some extent in the towns by "Skyddsforeninga," "Societies for Assistance," which have been set on foot in order to ascertain the wants of the really deserving poor, and to furnish them with employment, supplying them with the necessaries of life when no longer capable of work.

These are altogether supported by voluntary contributions in money, and supplies of clothing and food, and are chiefly conducted by ladies under the supervision of the ministers of religion.

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In Stockholm the Queen Dowager and the Crown Princess are the patronesses of these societies, and in the provinces, influential residents in the larger towns undertake their formation, and continue to maintain them.

Administrative areas.

2. The country is divided into provinces, each of which is superintended by a governor, and these again into parishes.

Each parish in the country, and every town or borough possessing a municipality constitutes a poor union.

Unions.

Several parishes having a common municipal administration may unite to form a poor union, and these not unfrequently join together to found workhouses and other establishments of relief, subject to the approval of the provincial governor, and through him, of the King.

All measures taken for poor relief are decided upon in rural districts by a meeting of delegates to be elected for that purpose out of the ratepayers, and in towns, at public meetings of the citizens or their deputies held at the town hall.

Divisions into relief districts.

Rural poor unions are often divided into districts, each being chargeable with the relief of its own poor. Should any particular district become charged with an undue proportion of relief, an annual contribution is given by the central union to the relieving officer of the said district in proportion to the sum required for the presumed excess, the amount being fixed without appeal by the governor of the province.

The manner of this district division is determined by a majority of votes taken at a general meeting of ratepayers according to their rating, and is subject to confirmation or rejection by the governor. In the former case the division continues five years, without alteration, after which period amendments to it, or the repeal of it, may be proposed and considered by a general meeting of ratepayers.

Discretion of local authorities.

The poor unions determine independently the manner of relief to be applied throughout the district, which may vary according to the local peculiarities of the neighbourhood, always providing that mendicity be prevented.

The Central Poor Board.

The unions endeavour likewise to promote the erection of work-houses, savings banks, and mutual relief associations, in order to diminish the future poor rates throughout the district.

Funds.

All these provisions for relief are embodied in certain regulations to be approved by the Central Poor Board, and finally to receive the sanction of the governor.

The mode in which the poor rate is levied is the following :—

Every male residing in Sweden who has attained his eighteenth year, and is registered as paying the protection tax, a poll tax, is by the new law, liable to a poor rate of not more than 50 öre = 6½d. sterling, and every female of the same age to one not exceeding 25 öre = 3½d., throughout the kingdom ; but it is not always that this poor rate is levied up to its full amount. For in some parishes, the poor unions possess landed property of their own, either bequeathed to them in former times, or otherwise acquired, and other sources of revenue are often forthcoming, such as fines

imposed by magistrates, voluntary contributions and legacies, church offertories, and the like, so that the expense of poor relief is covered, and no rate is required.

Again, in many unions which possess little or no property, the ordinary poor rate, even when fully levied, does not suffice to afford the necessary relief.

In these cases, the communal boards hold a meeting, and by their vote are empowered to take from the ordinary assessed communal taxes and from the property tax such a sum as may be required to meet the deficiency, the consequent loss to the commune being made good during the next year by an increase of those taxes.

An example will illustrate this mode of proceeding. The property tax amounts to two rixdalers per 1,000 of value, and last year the municipality of the town of Stockholm decreed that 73 öre or about 36 per cent. of this tax should be appropriated to poor relief.

Again, the income tax is one per cent. on income from Swedish sources, and last year the communal tax, or "kommunal skatt" which is fixed at three rixdalers for every rixdaler paid as income tax, was so divided, that 89 öre of this sum, or 29 per cent., went for poor relief.

Every Swedish subject, with certain exceptions, when in need of poor relief, is entitled to a right of settlement in the poor union in which he or she has been last registered for poll taxation, and persons over sixty years of age are permitted to retain this right.

Wives share the rights enjoyed by their husbands, and retain them during widowhood.

Legitimate children under 15 years of age enjoy the same right of settlement as their parents, and if these be dead, then the right of the last survivor.

Illegitimate children have the right of the mother, and retain it after her death.

Persons serving in the army or navy, and engaged on Government works, or holding appointments under the Government, are registered for settlement in the places where they are employed.

Should a poor union afford relief to, or pay the funeral expenses of any person not settled there, a claim for compensation may be made within one month of the grant upon the union where such person is domiciled, the case being usually conducted under the supervision of the provincial governor or governors superintending the provinces concerned.

A similar claim may likewise be made upon any individual who is legally responsible for the maintenance of the person relieved, and if from any cause the place of domicile cannot be ascertained, or there be any special difficulties attending the case, the Government will satisfy the claim of the union out of a fund for the purpose.

3. In every poor union there is a poor board, and in the rural districts the communal board constitutes the poor board, and when,

SWEDEN. — as has been above stated, a union is divided into different districts, each of these has a poor superintendent, the rector of the parish concerned being entitled to a place at the poor board, and it is chiefly to these persons that those in search of relief are to apply.

Their duties. It is the duty of the poor board, which when not identical with the communal board, must in the country consist of not less than three, and in the towns of not less than five members, to inquire into every case of distress requiring relief brought before them.

They must determine to what extent it is to be granted, and in the case of poor children being maintained, they not only provide them with a fixed abode, but also with a sound religious education.

The board is expected to keep a register of the paupers under its care, to inspect them, and to ascertain that the persons to whom they are entrusted for relief fulfil their obligations. It must further furnish the poor union with a financial statement for the year, as well as an estimate for the coming year, and should any of the poor in its district be found begging, it must inquire into the cases, and take steps accordingly.

During famine or any similar public misfortune, when able-bodied persons are thrown out of work, it is the duty of the board to propose to the union measures for relieving them.

Election and procedure. The members of the poor board are elected by the poor union when the communal board does not constitute it, the numbers varying with the extent and requirements of the district, half the number of substitutes being also elected to fill up vacancies as they occur in the board. These elections take place according to the usual regulation in force for those of the members of the communal board and town delegates.

When a poor union is divided into districts, each district elects its poor superintendent, and should the district require a separate board, two or three of the members shall be elected, and with the superintendent form the board.

A chairman and vice-chairman are elected to preside in those capacities during the existence of the board, and in case of non-attendance, substitutes are elected at the meetings of the board. The names of these two functionaries are published in the official newspaper of the province as soon as their election has been notified to the governor, and in district poor boards the poor superintendent presides as chairman.

All meetings of the board are generally notified beforehand to ensure attendance, and at least one half of the members must be present at a meeting.

The votes at these meetings are openly given, the chairman having the casting vote, but elections are generally voted by ballot, an equal number on both sides requiring a decision by lot.

Duties of chairman. The duty of the chairman is to conduct the correspondence of the board, keep the accounts and the register of the correspondence, without receiving any further compensation for his services than that granted for stationery, postage, writing, and book-

keeping. He also engages and dismisses the assistants he may require in the work.

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Every poor board is responsible for the funds which have been placed under their administration, and also for all securities handed over to their keeping until their expenditure has received the sanction of the poor union; but the members are relieved of their responsibility twelve months and a night after the presentation of their account, without any objection having been made to it by the union.

4. The statistical office in Stockholm issues every five years its Statistical office report upon the condition of the poor throughout the Kingdom. in Stockholm.

The last available record of this kind is that which comprises the period between 1861 and 1865, and its information is summed up in the annexed table, which gives besides the numbers of the paupers relieved during the year 1865, the revenue and expenditure of the poor fund.

One column, which is headed "Revenue from various sources," comprises that derived from the produce of the labour executed in the workhouses, together with the value of relief given in wood and provisions, the items of which have not been reported separately by the governors of provinces.

As, however, by the new law a more distinctive classification has been adopted, this column will in future tables disappear.

The proportion of paupers numerically to population was in Proportion of pauperism to population.
1865 35·91 per 1,000.

SWEDEN.

Province.	Poor Unions.			Number of Poor-houses.	Number of Paupers receiving full Relief.								Total of both Sexes.		
	Undivided Unions.	Divided into Districts.			Aged Persons relieved.				Children relieved in and out of Poor-house.		Total.				
		Number of Districts.			In Poor-houses.	Out of Poor-house.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.			
		M.	F.		M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.			
Stockholm, Town	—	—	—	8	111	1,081	—	—	1	8	112	1,089	1,201		
" Prov.	114	5	80	127	151	436	173	338	436	400	760	1,174	1,934		
Uppsala	78	15	159	92	127	318	190	531	307	299	633	1,148	1,781		
Södermanland	86	9	52	126	275	632	161	813	351	359	807	1,304	2,111		
Ostergötland	164	55	233	219	572	1,139	314	777	695	679	1,681	2,595	4,176		
Jönkoping	113	54	180	119	272	573	513	996	475	453	1,260	2,022	3,282		
Kronobergs	79	10	167	63	64	154	442	805	439	446	945	1,405	2,350		
Calmar	80	19	235	101	219	432	319	694	628	577	1,166	1,763	2,939		
Gotland	86	8	23	94	51	96	51	89	83	95	185	230	465		
Blekinge	20	15	97	23	174	216	203	334	405	490	872	1,040	1,912		
Christianstad	126	23	54	85	172	306	508	625	527	523	1,207	1,454	2,661		
Malmöhus	196	25	107	300	567	904	498	645	722	680	1,782	2,229	4,011		
Hallands	85	6	66	70	106	141	316	428	298	283	720	862	1,572		
Göteborg	71	26	151	20	314	352	576	996	946	851	1,836	2,199	4,035		
Elsborg	188	42	375	158	154	306	908	1,396	874	896	1,936	2,597	4,533		
Skaraborg	218	44	178	251	283	578	377	593	576	544	1,236	1,715	2,951		
Wärmland	73	18	146	15	24	66	814	1,398	795	747	1,633	2,211	3,844		
Orebro	49	17	151	51	97	257	373	648	501	487	971	1,372	2,343		
Westmanland	44	28	209	140	124	364	151	343	300	321	575	1,028	1,603		
Kopparberg	38	1	9	5	16	47	197	346	294	269	507	662	1,160		
Gefleborg	36	15	95	19	57	103	137	189	192	166	386	458	844		
Westernorrland	34	20	62	18	29	56	188	277	183	224	400	557	957		
Jemtland	39	8	55	1	—	—	107	111	43	27	150	138	288		
Westerbotten	19	1	77	19	10	43	184	273	452	500	646	816	1,462		
Norrbotten	16	6	86	5	10	28	184	265	158	188	353	481	833		
Total in 1863	2,053	469	3,047	2,129	3,979	8,628	7,906	13,400	10,771	10,492	22,658	32,527	55,187		
" 1864	2,046	457	3,101	2,040	3,835	8,438	7,612	12,854	10,824	9,990	21,771	31,282	53,053		
" 1863	2,042	450	3,209	2,035	3,665	8,321	7,230	12,575	9,862	9,564	20,766	30,460	51,226		
" 1862	2,027	473	3,463	1,995	3,533	8,104	6,929	11,977	9,355	9,183	19,817	29,264	49,061		
" 1861	2,034	465	3,428	1,972	3,463	8,659	6,844	11,729	9,027	8,909	19,325	28,697	48,022		

Poor receiving partial Relief.			Calculated in Rixdollars, 17·70 to £ sterling.							
			Revenue of Poor Relief.							
			Arising from Property, Offices, and other private Sources.	Personal Taxes.	Additional Revenue.		Compensation.		Total Income.	Total Expenditure for Relief of Poor.
M.	F.	Total.			Arising from Income and Communal Taxes.	Arising from other Sources.	Government Assistance.	Obtained from other Poor Unions.		
3,660	4,141	7,801	79,259	38,775	146,750	102,602	13,645	5,235	385,266	410,632
443	1,158	1,801	32,432	13,367	40,040	12,347	783	349	99,367	96,875
1,847	1,806	2,953	22,913	9,875	29,664	13,220	—	383	76,055	77,824
588	1,487	2,075	31,328	13,063	43,556	17,130	616	796	166,408	168,252
1,791	3,477	5,268	54,379	29,154	137,790	24,944	867	1,053	246,187	246,352
1,682	3,657	4,289	27,605	18,233	75,724	18,593	783	183	141,118	138,281
1,800	2,984	4,784	17,260	19,788	68,661	18,804	837	426	125,856	121,364
1,875	4,374	6,240	17,784	24,468	90,988	28,807	1,191	190	168,853	164,002
185	439	624	5,891	3,300	15,632	5,744	924	40	31,521	31,104
1,023	2,087	3,110	14,972	13,095	76,447	13,211	9,288	2,251	129,264	121,296
1,065	1,912	3,967	20,013	27,113	87,939	9,454	5,348	583	160,940	150,442
1,318	3,376	4,694	66,498	32,349	203,388	30,486	6,442	1,896	341,059	331,631
846	1,588	2,451	12,577	14,711	52,083	21,351	—	339	101,060	101,184
2,437	4,746	7,183	43,908	26,890	214,208	85,902	2,267	9,255	381,800	309,766
2,270	3,727	5,997	21,262	33,915	127,881	31,171	1,186	445	215,860	221,849
1,586	2,071	4,287	24,433	17,418	68,680	26,787	3,267	823	140,408	140,462
2,831	4,529	6,860	23,742	25,827	107,792	95,413	466	168	287,478	236,423
1,069	2,197	3,266	24,279	21,599	90,088	19,017	505	1,188	156,671	161,418
676	2,170	2,846	27,750	11,511	29,091	28,144	1,120	80	97,696	97,163
1,198	1,864	8,052	40,041	17,960	40,537	11,375	833	631	119,877	126,029
597	1,830	1,927	34,638	15,765	33,122	19,175	164	213	108,077	101,768
589	1,188	1,777	15,802	15,623	39,374	16,353	216	690	87,957	89,316
617	718	1,835	8,275	4,141	6,275	19,730	35	—	38,456	42,225
1,463	1,780	3,243	7,034	10,105	29,661	9,942	—	—	56,742	62,482
846	1,144	1,992	7,867	6,655	29,113	9,363	2,646	875	56,419	59,283
33,231	59,370	92,601	682,027	464,699	1,893,363	687,452	53,268	28,015	3,841,804	3,886,863
30,866	54,824	85,680	700,783	432,492	1,857,372	720,419	53,324	25,968	3,826,666	3,884,260
29,621	52,413	82,034	773,205	410,766	1,523,543	876,359	60,758	24,455	3,706,393	3,877,704
28,456	50,139	78,595	733,703	361,366	871,846	1,828,617	51,444	17,833	3,384,742	3,420,409
27,136	48,392	75,528	728,321	350,893	884,705	1,272,915	48,260	17,944	3,276,979	3,316,065

SWEDEN.

Workhouses and almshouses.

Provision for the sick.

The right of mastership over paupers.

Indoor and outdoor.

Law as to beggars.

Mendicant children.

5. The table annexed to the foregoing reply gives the aggregate number of workhouses and almshouses throughout the kingdom, and those in each province.

There are no hospitals especially set apart for the poor, but a sick ward is frequently attached to the almshouses, and according to the new law, poor unions have a right to club together to erect hospitals in their districts.

Every poor board possesses by virtue of the recent Act the right of mastership over all persons seeking relief at its hands, and likewise over anyone whose wife and children are receiving relief from it; and this authority is retained by the board as long as relief is administered, and in cases where the destitution of his wife and children is caused by the husband's own idleness or neglect, he is liable to the authority of the board until by his labour he has compensated it for the assistance rendered to his family.

This authority enables the board to determine whether the poor whom it relieves shall be maintained in the workhouse or shall labour for private individuals. It also subjects any able-bodied person who proves refractory to its demands to punishment by the provincial governor, while any others who are under its mastership and disobey its commands may be fined summarily by a diminution of the relief afforded, and if children, may be duly chastised.

6. The new poor law provides in paragraphs from 38 to 45 the mode in which beggars are to be treated.

Every poor union appoints poor inspectors on their own responsibility, whose duty it is to repress mendicity and to arrest beggars.

An arrested beggar, if on investigation he be really destitute, is relieved by the inspector.

If he be guilty of imposture and deliberate mendicity, the inspector delivers him over to the nearest Crown bailiff to be punished as the governor of the province may determine, and if he be taken within his own district of settlement, to the poor law authorities, who will undertake to forward him to the governor.

Children under 15 years of age found begging outside their district, are removed by the inspector's authority to their own domicile, or to that of their guardian or natural protector, and in case such domicile cannot be ascertained, then temporary relief is afforded by the union in which they are arrested.

Children begging within their own district are relieved by the union if really destitute, and admonished and reprimanded by the poor board if guilty of mendicity.

On a repetition of the offence, the police authorities are to see that the child receives proper castigation at the hands of its parents or guardian.

Should it be proved that the child has begged unnecessarily by order or with the consent of its parents or any other person, these are to be held responsible by the poor board, and the governor will punish them by the infliction of hard labour.

Any beggar convicted of mendicity may be condemned to hard labour by the governor of the province in which he is arrested, or may be sent by prison conveyance to his own domicile, and punished by the governor of his own province.

Hard labour, when inflicted upon beggars, shall not be for less than one month or more than six, and is to be performed in the establishments for the purpose belonging to the district, or if no workhouse exist there, then in the district prison or the Crown jail, or if the latter be full, then in the house of correction or the labour corps.

Police authorities possess equal rights of arresting beggars as the poor inspectors, and all town bailiffs are required to exert themselves to the utmost to cause beggars to disappear from the country.

7. The new law provides that in most cases all paupers are to be sent to their place of domicile, and a claim for compensation made upon their union by the one in which they were temporarily relieved.

According to paragraph 29, any union which has relieved anyone having right of settlement elsewhere, is entitled to receive from the union to which he belongs, compensation for relief granted, and for funeral expenses should he have died while under its care.

In order to recover this sum, any poor board puts in its claim to repayment before the governor of the province, within one month from the time that relief was given, accompanying it with all available documents, proving in which union the person relieved was domiciled. Should this term be exceeded, all right of subsequent compensation is forfeited.

The governor then calls upon the poor board of the union against which the claim is made to make a statement of its case within some short and limited period.

If the person relieved be domiciled in another province, the case is remitted to the decision of the governor of that province.

When all correspondence between the two poor unions concerned is concluded the case is finally decided by the governor, by whom also all disputes with regard to the amount of compensation claimed are to be settled.

The same principle of recovery of compensation obtains in the case of a pauper for whose maintenance any kinsman or other individual is responsible, and who may be summoned before the governor to repay the cost of the relief which he should have afforded.

In certain exceptional cases where a pauper's domicile cannot be ascertained, and the costs for his maintenance or funeral expenses cannot be obtained from any private individual, the Government will grant compensation to the poor union in question.

If a pauper become destitute and be relieved in a locality where Removal. he is not domiciled, the poor union of that place may demand that he be sent to his own place of settlement; or he may continue to receive relief in one union but at the cost of the one to which he Non-resident relief.

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belongs, and in case of his removal the latter union is to pay to the former any reasonable costs attending it.

This, however, does not apply to the poor receiving casual relief who are not compelled by law to return to their own domicile.

Removal of beggars.

Beggars, when sent to their place of settlement, as stated above, perform the journey at the expense of their own union, and if a child be arrested for mendicity within a poor union to which it does not belong, the costs of its removal to its domicile shall be reimbursed by the union to which it is sent.

The costs attending the delivery of a beggar to the governor, according to law, are to be defrayed by the poor union where he was arrested, but under other circumstances the Government will pay for his transport and maintenance during the term of his punishment.

Of persons in government employ.

Any person belonging to the army or navy, or otherwise, in government employment, and having quitted it by reason of old age or physical infirmity incurred during his service, and having become destitute within one year of his having left it, is relieved by the poor union of the district in question, which, however, is entitled to receive compensation from the Government for the relief given, as well as for sending the pauper to his own domicile and for his funeral expenses, should he die while under its care.

The same provision applies to the case of the wife and children of a person in government employment who may have become destitute during his service, subject to certain modifications mentioned in paragraph 31 of the new poor law.

When compensation from the Government is due to a poor union it must be applied for through the governor of the province before the close of January of the year following that during which the relief was granted.

The claim is then examined, and is reported upon by the governor to the authorities before the 15th March next ensuing.

8. The new poor law contains no provision applying to foreign paupers, but a special regulation exists with regard to natives of Norway who may have become destitute in Sweden.

On application to the poor union of the district they receive temporary relief, and are afterwards sent to the frontier, and given in charge to the Norwegian authorities.

Within a certain limited period the Norwegian Government refund to the poor union in question the cost of relief and removal of the pauper, the claim having been sanctioned by the governor of the province and forwarded to Norway through the Swedish Government.

Swedes who have become paupers in Norway are treated in a similar manner, and sent over the frontier into Sweden.

Foreigners, when found in a state of destitution in the large towns, are usually conducted by the police authorities to the consular agents of the country to which they belong, and should these refuse relief, are subsequently sent by prison conveyance, and at Government expense, to the frontier nearest their own home,

and given in charge to the police authorities of the neighbouring state.

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Natives of Great Britain in such a case would be sent across the Sound and delivered to the authorities either at Copenhagen or Elsinore.

Considerable latitude, however, appears to be allowed in carrying out this regulation, and every reasonable chance is given to the person in distress of earning an honest livelihood, expulsion from the country being of comparatively rare occurrence.

9. As the new poor law has only been in force since last November, its practical working and effects have not been sufficiently tested to be commented upon, but it is generally felt that its application to the repression of mendicity in the large towns has already been most beneficial. Working of the new law.

MEMORANDUM on the ADMINISTRATION of PUBLIC POOR RELIEF in the TOWN of STOCKHOLM.

The above-mentioned regulations respecting the constitution of the boards for the administration of poor relief throughout Sweden do not wholly apply to those which exist in the capital.

The town is divided into eight parishes, each of which possesses Parishes, its own poor union and board, but these are superintended by a general executive committee, "Fattigvärds-nämnn," which bears autho- The Fattig-
rity over the entire public poor relief of the town. värds-nämnn.

Its members consist of town delegates of the municipality, and a Its constitution and procedure. certain number, varying with the year, are annually elected by ballot, the chief superintendent of police being also, by virtue of his office, a deliberating but not a voting member.

This executive committee is under the orders of the general municipal board, and no fundamental charges in the expenditure of the funds over which it has the control can be undertaken without the previous sanction of that body.

The grand governor of the town sits as chairman, but has no vote on the committee. The meetings take place once a month, when at least eight members must attend. The votes are taken openly, and in case of equality a ballot is called for, and should the votes be again equal, lot will decide the question.

The authority of this committee extends over the administration Its duties. of the funds for the poor, and likewise in determining the persons who are deserving of relief on the reports of its inspectors.

The committee further appoints the members of the various poor boards, which in their turn are presided over by the rators of the parishes concerned.

The boards appoint their inspectors, male and female, to visit the several districts, to endeavour to find employment for those who are willing to work, and in general to attend to the moral welfare of the lower classes, in the manner prescribed by the general executive committee.

The committee has supreme control over the workhouses and other public charitable institutions in the town as regards their

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extension or diminution of their means of relief, but any new regulations affecting the number of vagrants or beggars confined for compulsory labour in the workhouses, although proposed and drawn up by the committee, require the ratification of the King.

The financial statements of the various institutions under the control of the executive committee are made up for each year, and presented to it at latest by the 1st of March of the next, under a penalty of five rixdalers, 5s. 6d., for every day delayed, the fines being appropriated to the poor fund.

Audit.

Nine auditors are appointed annually by the municipality to revise these accounts which they receive from the committee.

A succinct report is likewise drawn up upon the expenditure of the funds under its charge during the past year.

The accounts are audited, and the report printed by the 1st of August, and are delivered by the committee to the municipality to be placed among the archives.

The executive committee enter upon their duties on the 1st April of each year, the elections for the committee which is to serve during the following year taking place in December.

Stockholm, February 8, 1872.

NASSAU JOCELYN.

COLLECTION OF SWEDISH STATUTES.

(*To be read from the Pulpit.*)

HIS MAJESTY'S Gracious STATUTE relative to the Relief of the Poor. Given at the Palace of Stockholm, this ninth day of June in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one.

We, Charles, by the grace of God, King of Sweden, Norway, the Goths and Vandals, make known, That after having graciously submitted to the "Riksdag" assembled this year an amended Poor Law Bill, in order that, pursuant to § 57 of the Constitution, the "Riksdag" might resolve with regard to those parts of the Bill that affected the municipal statutes, or that had reference to the liability of the State in certain cases to defray the charges connected with the relief of the poor, and also humbly to report upon the general provisions of the Bill: And whereas the "Riksdag," for its part, has passed the said Bill, subject to some amendments thereto appended: Therefore we have deemed it right to repeal the statute of the thirteenth of July one thousand eight hundred and fifty-three, relative to the relief of the poor, together with all other regulations contrary to the enactments herein-after contained, and to decree as follows:—

I.—GENERAL PROVISIONS.

§ I.

Who are to be relieved.

Any minor, and also any person who, by old age, physical or mental infirmity, decrepitude, or deformity, is rendered incapable

of obtaining by labour the adequate means of maintaining life, and who is also destitute of personal resources, and does not enjoy care and support from others, shall receive such poor relief as is absolutely necessary.

The term "minor" shall be construed in this Statute to mean a child under 15 years age.

§ 2

In other cases than those described in § 1, each poor union Discretion of may determine the rules to be observed by its poor board. Where poor unions. no such rules have been determined, the poor board shall be entitled to grant relief to paupers to the extent it may deem requisite.

§ 3.

Every able-bodied person shall, without being chargeable to Able-bodied the poor union, maintain him or herself, and his or her children persons. (who are minors), and likewise every able-bodied husband shall maintain his wife. So, also, parents and children shall be mutually bound to maintain each other, so far as circumstances may require and ability extend.

§ 4.

As regards the relief of domestic servants, farm labourers engaged by the year, and also workpeople engaged in manufac- tories, handicrafts, iron works, and mines, together with their wives and minor children (resident in their parents' house), the employers shall be liable for such persons during the term of their engagements, so that they may not become chargeable to the union.

§ 5.

In those cases in which special provision is made for the relief of the poor, to wit, with regard to the relief of poor children while attending school, and of persons released from public correctional establishments and prisons, or with regard to the poor. gratuitous maintenance and nursing at hospitals of destitute persons who have fallen sick within a hospital district to which they do not belong, the special enactments so provided shall be observed.

II.—POOR UNIONS.

§ 6.

1. Every parish in the rural districts, and every town or Constitution of borough possessing its own communal administration, shall poor unions. constitute an independent poor union.

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2. When two or more rural parishes, or a rural and town community, possess jointly one communal administration, they shall also be considered to form one poor union.

3. Independent poor unions may further unite with each other for the establishment of joint poor houses, or for other joint purposes in connexion with the relief of the poor. This notwithstanding, with reference to the establishment of houses for compulsory labour, previous notice thereof shall be given to His Majesty's governor, and it shall be his duty to remit the matter, together with his own report thereon, for the decision of His Majesty.

§ 7.**Constituent bodies.**

The resolving power of poor unions shall be exercised, in the rural districts, at duly convened meetings of the community, or by deputies of the community when such are elected, and in towns at public meetings of the townspeople held before the town court, or by deputies of the town, when such exist. The executive and administrative power shall be exercised by the poor board in the manner herein-after provided.

§ 8.**Division into districts.**

1. Any rural poor union may, with reference to its poor relief as regards the whole or any part thereof, divide itself into divisional districts, with the obligation for each such district to provide for the relief of its own poor. It shall, however, be a fundamental condition for any such division, that the existing chargeability on the union be divided as equally as possible; and that, provided it be probable that any divisional district, from special circumstances, will at any future time become chargeable with a relatively larger proportion of poor relief, an annual contribution proportioned thereto shall be made by the poor union to the relieving officers of such divisional district; and further, that, provided after such division has been effected any divisional district, from special circumstances resulting from any cause for which such district is not responsible, shall become burdened with too heavy a chargeability, the poor union shall make the divisional district such contribution as, in the event of an amicable agreement not being effected, His Majesty's governor shall deem right to award.

2. The question of the division of any poor union into divisional districts shall only be discussed and resolved upon at a general meeting of the community; and a majority of two thirds of the votes of the persons present, based on their rating, shall be requisite to effect such a division. The resolutions by which such a division is effected shall accurately determine the conditions on which it is grounded, together with the regulations relative to the discussion and determination of matters connected with the relief of the poor of the divisional districts; the proportion in which the poor rates shall be allotted to meet both the separate chargeability

~~Section~~

of the divisional districts and the joint chargeability of the poor union ; and also the manner in which account shall be rendered of the administration of poor relief in the divisional districts, and in what degree the principles which, pursuant to the provisions herein-*after* contained relative to the settlement of paupers, are binding on certain poor unions with regard to poor relief, shall be applied as concerns a similar obligation of the divisional districts. Should resolutions relative to the division of any poor union into divisional districts be adopted as aforesaid, the final decision of the question shall, notwithstanding, be postponed until the next following general meeting of the community. If at such next general meeting the former resolutions be readopted with the before-named majority of votes, they shall then be remitted for the consideration of His Majesty's governor, who shall either confirm them as submitted, or absolutely reject them, and append his reasons for so doing.

3. If His Majesty's governor confirm resolutions relative to the division of the poor union into divisional districts, such division shall continue for at least five years, and subsequently, until it be otherwise determined, proportions relative to the repeal or amendment of such resolutions shall not be moved until the fifth year after any divisional districts have been formed as aforesaid. Propositions relative to the repeal of divisional districts shall be discussed and resolved upon at general meetings of the community, and the resolutions supported by the majority of votes given by the persons present, based on their rating, shall be adopted. Such resolutions shall be remitted for the consideration of His Majesty's governor, and, provided the continuation of the divisional district be resolved and confirmed, such division shall continue for at least the same term herein-before prescribed. Any change in divisional districts shall be proposed and effected in conformity with the enactments relative to their first constitution.

4. Every poor union in which divisional districts are formed shall remain responsible for the fulfilment of the obligations relative to poor relief attaching to its divisional districts, but shall be entitled to compensation for poor relief by the divisional districts on behalf of which such relief has been given.

§ 9.

1. Every poor union shall, in conformity with the provisions of this Statute, determine its poor relief in the manner best adapted to the local peculiarities of the neighbourhood ; always provided that mendicity be prevented. Every poor union should exert itself in the establishment of houses of labour for those who are under the guardianship of the poor board, and also endeavour by the establishment of saving banks and mutual relief associations, or by other suitable measures, to obviate as far as possible the necessity for future poor relief.

Manner of
relief to be
determined by
each poor
union, but
mendicancy
must be sup-
pressed.

2. Any poor union desirous of establishing for its own separate

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purposes a house of compulsory labour shall observe the provisions enacted in this respect in § 6. sec. 3. of this Statute.

3. All provisions relative to poor relief which any poor union shall deem it expedient to adopt shall be embodied in the form of regulations, and after the poor board have reported thereon shall be confirmed by the poor union. This notwithstanding, the legality of such regulations, when applied, shall be subject to the judgment of His Majesty's governor.

III.—POOR BOARDS.

§ 10.

Poor boards.

1. There shall be a poor board in every union; and in the rural districts, when not otherwise determined by the union, the communal board shall constitute such board.

2. In every poor union divided into divisional districts there shall, in addition to the foregoing, be a poor superintendent in every such district; and it shall be at the option of each divisional district to determine whether or not its poor relief shall be administered by a separate board.

3. Every rector of a parish, or the person filling his place, shall be entitled to take part in the deliberations and resolutions of the board appointed to administer poor relief in his parish.

§ 11.

Applications for relief.

Any person seeking poor relief shall apply either to the chairman of the poor board of the union in which he or she resides, or to the rector or any other member of the said board, otherwise to the inspector herein-after described in § 39, or the officer appointed by the poor board to receive such applications. In divisional districts the application shall be made to the poor superintendent. Applications for poor relief may also be made to police authorities or their subordinates, who shall report to the poor board any case that may appear to demand the action of such board.

§ 12.

Duties of poor boards.

1. Every poor board which has to decide matters concerning the granting of poor relief shall carefully ascertain the position and necessities of each applicant, and, as circumstances may require, determine whether, and to what extent, poor relief shall be granted; and in connexion therewith it should be observed that children relieved by any poor board shall not only be maintained and provided with a fixed abode, but also be religiously brought up and instructed.

2. With regard to the poor relief to be granted pursuant to § 1. no difference shall be observed between those applicants who belong to the poor union in which they seek relief, and those who belong to any other union.

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The following rules shall be observed by every poor board :—

1. To keep a register of all paupers enjoying poor relief.

Rules to be observed by them.

To maintain inspection over every pauper, and provide that the relief granted be duly applied, and that all persons to whom any child or other pauper is entrusted for maintenance by the poor board fulfil the obligations they have undertaken. In furtherance of these objects, every poor union should, when practicable, be divided into districts, and each district be placed under the superintendence of a member of the poor board.

To manage and administer all other matters connected with poor relief in conformity with the provisions of this Statute, and the special regulations adopted by the poor union.

Annually to deliver in a statement of the estimated receipts and disbursements for the following year, to render an account of the funds under its administration, and to report upon its proceedings in conformity with the communal statutes ; and to prepare a statistical statement relative to poor relief in conformity with the prescriptions that may be issued by His Majesty.

2. It shall also be the duty of every poor board, on receiving notice that any child is guilty of begging or is neglected, to obtain information on the subject, and, in connexion therewith, to adopt such measures as the board shall consider the case to require.

3. If, by reason of dearth or any other general misfortune, such diminution arise in the ordinary means of employment that able-bodied persons, without any fault of their own, become liable to destitution, any poor board may lay before the union a proposal for the adoption of such measures as the circumstances shall demand.

§ 14.

1. In every poor union divided into divisional districts the poor board shall not only provide that each district fulfil its obligations as concerns poor relief in general, but also, when the poor relief demanded in certain cases, pursuant to the provisions of § 1, shall be omitted by any divisional district, and the matter be not immediately rectified after notice to that effect from the poor board, to grant the destitute person or persons in question necessary poor relief, and further to proceed as prescribed in § 29. The same inspection and procedure shall be observed by every poor board with regard to the maintenance of any pauper, undertaken pursuant to the provisions of § 34. by any private person.

With regard to divisional districts.

2. If any dispute arise between any divisional districts belonging to the same poor union relative to the obligation of relieving any individual, it shall be the duty of the poor board to adjudicate thereon.

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Election of
members.

§ 15.

1. In any rural poor union in which the members of the communal board shall not also act as the poor board, the union shall elect so many members to serve on its poor board as shall be required by the extent of the union and the number of its inhabitants, the minimum of any board not being less than three members; and at the election of any poor board substitutes shall also be elected to the number of half the members of the board, or, provided the number of the board be uneven, to the number that is nearest above the half.
2. In every town union so many members shall be elected to serve on the poor board as the union shall deem proper to determine, the minimum of any board not being less than five members.
3. With reference to the term during which members of poor boards and their substitutes shall serve, and the manner of their retirement, and also the conditions on which they may decline to serve, the provisions in force relative to members and substitutes of communal boards shall be observed in rural districts, and in towns the provisions relative to town delegates.
4. In every poor union divided into divisional districts each district shall elect its poor superintendent, and where any district shall have determined to have a separate board for its poor relief, two or three of the members of such district shall also be elected, who, together with the superintendent, shall constitute the said poor board.

§ 16.

Chairman and
vice-chairman.

1. In every poor union in which a separate poor board is appointed the union shall elect from among the members of its poor board a chairman and vice-chairman, who shall preside in that capacity during the term for which they are elected as members of the board.
2. If both the chairman and the vice-chairman shall be prevented from attending any meeting of the board, the board shall elect from among its members a chairman for the occasion.
3. The name and residence of the person elected to be a president of any poor board shall be reported to His Majesty's governor without delay, and by him be published among the official notifications of the governmental district ("Län").
4. In the poor board of any divisional district the poor superintendent shall preside as chairman.

§ 17.

Meetings and
procedure.

1. Every poor board shall assemble at such places and at such times as the board itself shall determine, and shall further meet so often as the chairman shall deem expedient, or also whenever a requisition to that effect shall be made by at least half of the members of the board. In the rural districts previous notice of

every such meeting shall be publicly given, provided the matter to be treated do not demand such speedy decision that no time can be allowed for previous notification.

2. No matter shall be resolved upon by any poor board unless more than half of the members of the board be present; and, provided the number of such members be not more than three, the whole board must be present.

3. All resolutions shall be decided by open voting, and each member of the board shall possess one vote. If the votes are equally divided on any question, the chairman shall have a casting vote. Elections, when so requested, shall be effected by ballot, and if the votes be equally divided the election shall be decided by lot.

§ 18.

1. In the rural districts the chairman of every poor board shall keep, or, on his own responsibility, cause to be kept, minutes of every meeting, in which shall be entered all the resolutions of the board, and the reasons on which such resolutions are based. The chairman shall also conduct the correspondence of the board, receive all letters, despatches, and applications addressed to the board, be responsible for the proper keeping of the accounts of the board, and preserve and register the documents of the board, without any other compensation than that granted by the board for stationery, postage, writing, and book-keeping; and the chairman shall be entitled to engage the requisite assistant or assistants for the purposes aforesaid, and to dismiss him or them when he shall deem right to do so.

Duties of chairman in rural districts.

2. The foregoing prescriptions shall also apply to any town poor board relative to which the town court of town delegates (when such exist) shall not have otherwise determined.

§ 19.

Every member of any poor board shall be jointly responsible with his co-members for all funds placed under the administration of the board, and also for all documental securities against the value of which he shall not have caused an objection to be entered in the minutes. This responsibility shall continue until the administration of the board shall have been sanctioned by the poor union, or, in case of appeal, by the proper court; otherwise until twelve months and a night shall have elapsed from the date of the presentation of the accounts without any appeal being made in due form of law.

Responsibility for funds and documents.

§ 20.

Every poor superintendent and also every poor board of a divisional district shall observe the provisions herein-before contained relative to the duties of poor boards and their chairmen, so far as they shall be applicable to the poor relief of divisional

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districts, and also the special prescriptions contained in the resolutions by which any divisional district is constituted, or that the district itself may have provided.

§ 21.

Stockholm.

The provisions contained in §§ 10, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20 do not extend to Stockholm; which city, as regards the matters referred to in the said paragraphs, shall be governed by the Statute relative to the Communal administration of Stockholm, and the regulations in force for the poor boards of Stockholm.

IV.—SETTLEMENT OF PAUPERS, AND COMPENSATION FOR POOR RELIEF ADMINISTERED.

§ 22.

Settlement.

For all purposes of poor relief every Swedish subject in need of such relief, with the exceptions herein-after contained, shall be considered to enjoy right of settlement in the poor union in which he or she pursuant to law has or should have been last registered for poll taxation.

§ 23.

Of persons over sixty years of age.

Every person of sixty years of age shall subsequently retain the same right of settlement that he or she possessed at that age.

§ 24.

Of married women and children.

1. Every married woman, irrespective of age, shall enjoy the right of settlement possessed by her husband. If, by the decease of the husband, or otherwise, any marriage be dissolved, the wife shall retain the same right of settlement as that she last possessed during marriage, until she become entitled to another settlement.

2. Every legitimate child who is a minor shall enjoy the right of settlement possessed by the father, or if he be deceased, and the mother alive, the settlement possessed by her; and if both parents be dead, the right of settlement which the parent last deceased possessed at his or her death.

3. Every illegitimate child who is a minor shall enjoy the right of settlement possessed by the mother, and, if she be deceased, the right of settlement she possessed at her death.

4. The right of settlement enjoyed by any child at fifteen years of age shall be retained until he or she shall become entitled to another settlement.

§ 25.

Further regulations.

If any person, either for himself, his wife or minor children, shall be in need of poor relief pursuant to § 1. before the expir-

ation of a year from the time when, in consequence of removal into the district of any poor union, he has or should have been registered for poll taxation in such district, or if any person, with the intention of removing into the district of any poor union shall have been registered for poll taxation in such district, and subsequently not have removed thither, he shall not be considered to enjoy the right of settlement in the poor union in which he has or should have been so registered for taxation, but shall retain the right of settlement which he enjoyed next previously thereto. The same provisions shall apply to any person who, in consequence of removal into the district of any poor union, has or should have been registered for poll taxation in such district, and who, during the course of the year next preceding or of the year next succeeding such registration, shall from any other poor union have enjoyed poor relief for himself, his wife or minor children.

§ 26.

The aforesaid provisions relative to registration for poll tax- As to Govern-
ment work-
people.
ment shall not determine the settlement of any man serving in the army or royal navy, or of any workman or mechanic engaged in the docks or works of the Government, and who, solely in consequence of such service or engagement, shall be registered for poll taxation in the district in which he serves or is engaged as aforesaid.

§ 27.

The division of any poor union into divisional districts shall Settlement not
not, as concerns any other poor union, affect the question of affected by
settlement, or, in connexion therewith, of compensation for poor division into
districts.
relief administered.

§ 28.

No person, from any consideration of future poor chargeability, shall be obstructed in his or her right to determine the district in which he or she will reside.

Prospective
pauperism
no bar to
choice of a
residence.

§ 29.

1. Any poor union which, pursuant to the provisions of § 1, shall have administered poor relief to any person who enjoys the right of settlement within any other union, shall be entitled to receive from such other union compensation for poor relief so granted, and also for funeral expenses when requisite. In order to recover the aforesaid, any poor board that shall have administered poor relief shall put in its claim to His Majesty's governor of the province, within one month from the day when such relief was administered, accompanied by all available documents elucidatory of the poor union in which the destitute person enjoys right of settlement, and a statement of the circumstances under

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which relief was granted, together with the nature of such relief; Provided no claim be put in within the aforesaid term, all right of compensation for poor relief administered subsequently thereto, and up to the time such claim is put in, shall be forfeited. When any claim for compensation shall have been put in as aforesaid, His Majesty's governor shall call on the poor board of the union against which such claim is made to deliver in its statement of the case within some short and limited period. Should the destitute person be declared to enjoy right of settlement in some poor union situate in any other province, the case shall be remitted to the decision of His Majesty's governor in such province. When all correspondence on the subject is concluded, and after the institution of further inquiry, when requisite, the case shall be decided by His Majesty's governor. Special disputes between any poor unions relative to the amount to be allowed in compensation for poor relief administered as aforesaid shall likewise be decided by His Majesty's governor.

2. Any poor union that, pursuant to the provisions of § 1, shall have incurred any charges for poor relief administered to any person for whose maintenance any kinsman or other private person or divisional district is liable, shall be entitled to receive compensation for the poor relief so granted, to the extent to which the claim shall be enforced by the poor board, from the person or persons responsible for the person to whom the relief is administered, and likewise for funeral expenses when incurred. The provisions contained in § 1, relative to claims against any poor union shall also, so far as they apply, extend to the enforcement of remuneration for the poor relief described in this section.

3. If, pursuant to the provisions of § 1, poor relief shall be administered to any person whose place of settlement cannot be ascertained, or to any person who is not a Swedish subject, and compensation for the costs of such poor relief, or for funeral expenses when incurred, cannot be obtained from any private individual, the poor union in question shall receive reimbursement from the Government in the manner herein-after prescribed.

§ 30.

Power of removal.

1. If any pauper, pursuant to the provisions of § 1, shall receive poor relief from any union other than that in which he enjoys the right of settlement, the poor board of the latter union shall be entitled to ask that he be sent to his own place of settlement, or itself to effect such removal; or otherwise, with the consent of the poor board of the union in which such pauper is, to permit him to remain there, and in the latter case he shall be relieved by the poor board of such union, the costs of such relief being chargeable to the union in which the pauper enjoys the right of settlement. If the poor board of the union in which he is, will not consent to his remaining in its union, it shall be entitled to send him home to the poor union in which he enjoys the right of settlement, and to receive from that union compensation

for any reasonable costs connected with his removal. This notwithstanding, no such pauper shall be sent home until opportunity shall have been offered to the poor board of the last-mentioned union to effect such removal itself; nor shall any such pauper be sent home as aforesaid whose health would suffer thereby, or to whom only casual relief is administered.

2. The provisions contained in § 29, sects 2 and 3, relative to compensation for poor relief administered to persons of the character therein described, shall also apply to compensation for costs connected with sending such persons home to their place of settlement.

§ 31.

1. If any man who has been enlisted in any regiment of the army, or in any other branch of the Royal Navy than the "Boatman Corps,"* or any workman or mechanic engaged in the Government docks or works, shall, within one year after his dismissal from such service by reason of old age, physical or mental infirmity, decrepitude or deformity, incurred during his service as aforesaid, become so destitute that poor relief must be administered to him pursuant to the provisions of § 1, the poor union concerned shall receive compensation from the Government, not only for the poor relief administered, but also for the costs of sending him home to his place of settlement, and for funeral expenses if incurred. The same prescriptions shall apply to those cases in which poor relief pursuant to the provisions of § 1. is administered to any destitute married woman or child who is a minor while the husband or father is still enlisted or engaged as aforesaid, or within a year after the decease of such husband or father while in the said service, or within the same term after such husband or father has been dismissed from the service; in the last-named case, however, only provided such husband or father, by reason of the circumstances herein-before stated, and pursuant to the provisions of § 1, has been or still is in the enjoyment of poor relief.

2. If any person shall for a prolonged term not less than five years, have uninterruptedly lived out of the poor union in which he enjoys right of settlement, and such poor union shall become chargeable for poor relief, costs of removal, or funeral expenses, either on behalf of such person, his minor children or his wife, who have also during the said time uninterruptedly lived out of their proper poor union, the union concerned may, provided it be especially burdened with chargeability for poor relief, receive assistance from the Government to such extent as the grants voted for the purpose will permit, and His Majesty may deem expedient.

Government contributions
in certain cases.

* "Boatman Corps,"—able-bodied seamen in the Royal Navy provided and supported by the farms and certain towns on the coast.—*Translator's note.*

§ 32.

How recovered. 1. Compensation or assistance from the Government in pursuance of the provisions of §§ 29, 30, and 31, shall be applied for by every poor union concerned, for each year, through His Majesty's governor, before the close of the month of January of the following year; and it shall be the duty of His Majesty's governor to examine the applications so delivered in, and to transmit them, together with his own report thereon, to His Majesty, before the 15th day of March next ensuing.

2. Questions connected with compensation for relief administered by any poor union in either of the United Kingdoms of Sweden and Norway to any destitute subject of the other kingdom shall be treated pursuant to the provisions of the special enactments relating thereto.

V.—CONTRIBUTIONS TO POOR RELIEF.

§ 33.

Special contributions towards poor relief.

In any poor union in which the revenue of real estate and funds set apart by such union for the poor relief, together with the proceeds of fines, church collections, voluntary contributions, and other similar sources of income, shall not be sufficient to meet the charges connected with such relief, a rate for the year, in addition thereto, shall be imposed, not exceeding 50 öre for each male, and 25 öre for each female, of 18 years of age and upwards, who is registered within such union for poll taxation; but this notwithstanding, a remission of the said rate may be granted to any person whose income is extremely small. Any sum required in addition to the aforesaid shall be raised by taxation in conformity with the general provisions enacted for levying communal rates.

§ 34.

Extra contributions from large employers of labour and landowners in rural unions.

If, within any rural poor union, manufactories, iron-works, or mining enterprises be established on so large a scale as to employ a considerable number of workmen forming households of their own, or if landed proprietors in the rural districts engage farm labourers by the year, or if they allot dwellings or ground for the purpose to so-called "backstugusittare" * or "inhysesjon", † likewise forming households of their own; and provided this be found to occasion a much larger chargeability to the poor union than is met by the rates which, pursuant to the provisions of § 33, shall be paid by the proprietor of such property, the said proprietor shall be bound to pay an additional contribution.

* "Backstugusittare," the tenant of a small cottage without farm land.

† "Inhyesjon," a tenant in the house of a farmer or peasant usually employed by the landlord, but not in his service.—*Translator's Notes.*

With regard to such contribution, an agreement may be entered into between the poor board and the proprietor; but, provided this be not effected, His Majesty's governor, at the request of the poor board, and after the statement of the proprietor has been received, shall adjudge whether the said proprietor shall pay an extra annual contribution to the poor union; such contribution not to exceed 10 riksdaler for each household aforesaid. If any proprietor shall prefer to assume the responsibility of poor relief connected with such households aforesaid, he shall be permitted to do so, provided he be found capable thereof, and in such case, he shall be released not only from the said extra contribution but also from half the additional taxation provided in § 33. Every agreement or prescription as aforesaid shall remain in force for the term of five years; but this notwithstanding, such agreements or prescriptions may be cancelled or recalled before the lapse of the said term, provided the poor union and the proprietor concerned agree thereto.

VI.—RIGHTS OF POOR UNIONS AS REGARDS PAUPERS.— MENDICITY.

§ 35.

1. Every poor board shall possess the authority of guardians and the right of mastership over every person who is wholly and permanently maintained by its union, and the right of mastership over every person who either enjoys for himself any other kind of poor relief, or whose wife or child that is a minor is wholly and permanently maintained pursuant to the provisions of § 1; and the said authority of guardians and rights of mastership shall continue so long as such poor relief is administered.

2. Any person, who through idleness or indifference, shall place his wife or child who is a minor in such destitution that they or either of them must receive poor relief pursuant to the provisions of § 1, shall, even though the relief so administered be casual, be subject to the right of mastership exercised by the Poor Board concerned, until he shall have rendered compensation to the poor union for the costs incurred as aforesaid on his behalf. The same prescription shall apply to any person whose child that is a minor shall, in pursuance of the provisions herein-after contained, be arrested for begging, and sent home to its place of settlement at the cost of any poor union.

3. The right of mastership attaching to any poor board may be transferred by such board to others.

4. If any able-bodied person subject to the mastership of any poor board, and not being a minor, shall refuse to perform any work prescribed by such board, or by any person to whom the rights of mastership have been transferred, or shall otherwise prove stubborn, wilful, disorderly, or refractory, and unwilling to submit to the warning of the board, the board in such case may, when it shall deem requisite, report the circumstances to His

The right of
mastership over
paupers pos-
sessed by poor
boards.

~~Swedes.~~ Majesty's governor. If any other person subject to the mastership of the board shall prove stubborn, wilful, disorderly, or refractory, he may, provided he be 15 years of age or upwards, be subjected for a time to a diminution of the relief administered; and, provided such pauper be less than 15 years of age, the board shall be empowered to inflict suitable chastigation upon him.

§ 36.

Claims on the property of paupers.

1. Every poor union, provided it shall not deem fit to grant partial or entire remission, shall be entitled to obtain compensation from any property possessed by any pauper when poor relief is first administered to him, or from any property of which such pauper may subsequently become possessed, not only for the poor relief administered, but also, when incurred, for the costs of removal to the pauper's place of settlement, or for funeral expenses.

2. When any pauper shall be received for full and permanent poor relief pursuant to the provisions of § 1, all property that he may possess shall fall to the poor union on which devolves the cost of his maintenance.

3. All wages that shall be earned by any person during the time he is subject to the mastership of any poor board, whether the board employ such pauper, or permit him to select his own work, may be applied not only to the compensation described in § 1, but also in reimbursement of the costs of poor relief administered, pursuant to the provisions of § 1, to the wife or any minor child of such pauper, and further in payment of any expenses for which such pauper may be found liable, pursuant to the provisions of § 43, sect. 2, for sending to its proper place of settlement any child arrested for begging.

§ 37.

Divisional districts.

The provisions contained in §§ 35 and 36 relative to poor unions and poor boards shall likewise apply, when any union is so divided, to each divisional district, and to each poor superintendent or district poor board.

§ 38.

Definition of mendicity.

Any person shall be considered guilty of mendicity who, either by word or gesture, shall ask alms of any other person than the authorities whose duty it shall be, pursuant to § 11, to receive such applications for relief.

§ 39.

Duties of poor inspectors.

1. In every poor union there shall be appointed a sufficient number of poor inspectors, whose duty it shall be to arrest beggars and to examine them, and otherwise act in the manner prescribed in § 46.

2. It shall be the duty of the poor board to appoint poor inspectors, and to dismiss them when it shall deem proper, and such inspectors shall receive for their trouble such salaries as shall be determined by the poor union on the proposition of the poor board.

Swansea.

§ 40.

1. Provided any arrested beggar of 15 years of age or upwards shall be considered by any poor inspector to be in so destitute a condition as to require poor relief pursuant to the provisions of § 1, such inspector shall report the circumstances to the proper poor board, in order that the requisite measures may be taken.

2. If any person of 15 years of age or upwards shall beg without being in so destitute a condition as to require poor relief pursuant to the provisions of § 1, and if such person shall have been previously found guilty of begging, or if it shall be circumstantially proved that he is wandering about for the purpose of begging, the poor inspector concerned shall, provided the beggar be not domiciled in the poor union in which he has been seized, conduct such beggar to the nearest crown or town bailiff, to be by such officer delivered over to His Majesty's governor. If, on the other hand, any arrested beggar shall enjoy settlement in the poor union in which he has been taken, the inspector shall report the circumstance to the poor board, which, provided it shall not be deemed right to afford poor relief pursuant to the provisions of § 2, shall either reprimand and warn such beggar, or cause him to be delivered over to His Majesty's governor.

3. If any child who is a minor shall be found begging within any poor union to which it does not belong, the poor inspector concerned shall provide for the removal of such child to the poor union in which it enjoys the right of settlement; or if the person who is responsible for the charge of such child be domiciled in any other poor union, then the child shall be removed to such union: Provided it cannot be ascertained to what place any such child should be removed, the inspector shall deliver it over to the poor board in order that it may receive such temporary relief as shall be deemed requisite.

4. If any child who is a minor shall beg within the poor union in which the person who is responsible for the charge of such child, or the child itself, enjoys the right of settlement, or if any child in consequence of mendicity be sent home to such union, the inspector concerned shall report the circumstances to the poor board, which, provided it be requisite, shall administer relief to such child; or if relief be not needed, and circumstances prove that the child did not beg by the orders or with the consent of its parents or any other person responsible for its charge, then the board shall reprimand and warn such child, and admonish those who are responsible for its charge to maintain a strict watch over the child. If, notwithstanding this, such child repeat the act of begging, the inspector shall report the circumstances to the police authorities of the place or district, who may order the child to be

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corrected and castigated at home by its parents, or by the person who is responsible for its charge, and whom it is bound to obey.

5. If any child who is a minor shall beg by the orders or with the consent of its parents or any other person who is responsible for its charge, the poor board may either warn and reprimand the person who has ordered or permitted the child to beg, or report the circumstances to His Majesty's governor.

§ 41.

Powers of the
governor
over beggars.

1. His Majesty's governor of any province may, when such procedure shall be deemed requisite, inflict compulsory labour on any beggar described in § 40, sect. 2, whether such beggar belong to his province or not; otherwise His Majesty's governor shall cause such beggar to be removed by prisoners conveyance to the place or district in which he is considered to have his proper domicile. The aforesaid notwithstanding, His Majesty's governor shall be empowered, when it may be deemed more expedient, to deliver over any beggar who is considered to be domiciled in another province to His Majesty's governor of that province, to be by him proceeded with in the manner herein provided.

2. If any person shall offend in the manner described in § 35, sect. 4, and § 40, sect. 5, and the circumstances shall be reported to His Majesty's governor, His Majesty's governor may, after examination before himself, or, in pursuance of his instructions, before the proper court of the place or district, inflict compulsory labour on such offender, or, provided extenuating circumstances exist, discharge him with a warning and reprimand.

§ 42.

Compulsory
labour.

1. When His Majesty's governor shall deem expedient to inflict compulsory labour on any beggar or other offender against the provisions of § 35, sect. 4, or § 40, sect. 5, the term of such infliction shall not be less than one month, and not more than six months; and the said labour shall be performed in the public establishment for compulsory labour provided for the place or district, or in such house of compulsory labour placed under the control of the public authorities, as is described in § 6, sect. 3, or § 9, sect. 2, provided the rules of such house admit thereof. If no such establishment shall exist, the offender shall be detained for the same term in the district prison or the crown jail, and there perform such labour as can be supplied, or if there be no room in the said prison or jail, then in the house of correction, or in the crown labour corps.

2. If any beggar shall be also liable to compulsory labour for vagrancy, no further punishment for mendicity shall be inflicted upon him.

§ 43.

Cost of removal
of beggars.

1. If any beggar shall be sent to his place of domicile from any poor union in which he has been arrested, and in pursuance of the

provisions of § 1 received poor relief, the prescriptions herein-before enacted relative to compensation for removal to his place of domicile of any person who shall have received such relief shall also extend to compensation for the costs of such beggar's removal.

2. If any child who is a minor shall be arrested for mendicity within any poor union to which it does not belong, and sent to its place of domicile by the inspector concerned, all costs unavoidably required by the circumstances of the case shall be reimbursed by the poor union in which such child enjoys the right of settlement; this notwithstanding, the latter union shall be entitled to obtain compensation from any person who may be responsible for the charge of such child; and the said compensation shall be recovered in the manner prescribed relative to claims for poor relief administered. Provided such latter union shall be divided into divisional districts, and the child, as regards poor relief, belong to either of these, such divisional district shall reimburse the union for its expenses, and the divisional district shall possess the same right to compensation as is herein-before provided for the union.

3. When any poor board shall, in pursuance of the provisions of § 40, sect. 2, cause any arrested beggar to be delivered over to His Majesty's governor, the costs of such delivery shall be defrayed by such poor union.

4. Under all other circumstances than those described in sections 1, 2, and 3, the entire costs of the transport of any beggar shall be defrayed by the Government.

§ 44.

The provisions contained in this Statute relative to the treatment of beggars by His Majesty's governors shall also apply to police authorities. Police authorities.

§ 45.

Every crown and town bailiff shall exert himself to the utmost in the suppression of mendicity, and, as far as he is concerned, afford any poor board or inspector such aid as circumstances may demand.

VII.—APPEALS RELATIVE TO POOR RELIEF.

§ 46.

1. If any person shall be dissatisfied with the decision of any poor board by which poor relief that is applied for is either totally or in part refused, he may request the chairman of such poor board to submit the said decision to the consideration of the union; and when any such request shall be made, the chairman of the board shall without delay, transmit such decision, together Appeals relative to poor relief to local authorities.

~~Sixty.~~ with all documents connected with the case, either to the chairman of the communal meetings, of the bench of magistrates, or of the town board; and it shall be the duty of such chairman to report the case to the proper authorities with as much speed as circumstances may demand.

2. If any poor union will refer the consideration of any decision described in section 1 to a special committee, the resolution relative thereto, which shall likewise determine the constitution of the committee and its powers, shall be remitted to His Majesty's governor, who shall either confirm it as submitted, or absolutely reject it, and append his reasons for so doing. Provided such resolution be sanctioned, and a special committee constituted, the provisions contained in section 1 relative to chairmen of communal meetings, benches of magistrates, and town boards, shall apply to the chairman of such committee.

3. The decisions of communal meetings, communal deputies, town courts, town deputies, or special committees, relative to poor relief, shall not be subject to any appeal, unless the appellant shall believe that he can prove that such decision has not been obtained in the manner prescribed by law; and any such appeal, and also any appeal against any other decision of communal meetings, communal deputies, town courts, or town deputies, in matters relating to poor relief, shall be regulated by the provisions contained in the communal statutes relative to the decisions of the said authorities in matters relating to other communities.

4. The provisions of this paragraph shall not prevent His Majesty's governor, whose duty it is to watch over the due administration of poor relief, from constraining any poor union that shall fail to fulfil such duty to administer relief to any person who, in pursuance of the provisions of § 1, is in need thereof.

§ 47.

To the go-
vernor.

As concerns the decision of any poor board which is not, pursuant to § 46, sect. 1, referable to the consideration of the poor union, and does not relate to any other matter of administration for the decision of which the board, pursuant to the provisions contained in this statute or the communal statutes, is solely responsible to the poor union, the appeal in such case shall be made to His Majesty's governor. Every such appeal shall be delivered in before 12 o'clock on the thirtieth day after the communication of the decision to the appellant, exclusive of the said day; and the appellant shall be bound to annex to such appeal the decision against which he appeals, together with a certificate of the day when such decision was communicated to him, and shall also, within fourteen days from the expiration of the term of appeal, deliver in to the poor board an attest that he has so appealed. In the event of any of the above prescriptions being neglected, the decision shall be carried into effect.

§ 48.

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1. If any person shall be dissatisfied with the decision of His Majesty's governor relative to any dispute between any poor unions, divisional districts, or private persons concerning the poor relief and the proper settlement of any paupers, or concerning compensation for expenses incurred in the relief, removal, or burial of any pauper, he may appeal against such decision to the Court of Exchequer ("Kammar Ratt"), and the said appeal shall be delivered in before 12 o'clock on the thirtieth day after the communication of the decision to the appellant, exclusive of the said day, to His Majesty's governor, who shall require the parties concerned to deliver in their respective statements relative to such appeal, and on receipt thereof shall transmit all the documents connected with the case, together with his own report thereon, to the Court of Exchequer. The same provisions shall extend to any appeal against any measures which His Majesty's governor shall deem right to order in pursuance of the provisions of § 46, sect. 4; but this notwithstanding, any such resolution shall be immediately carried into effect without awaiting the expiration of the term allowed for appeal, or the decision upon any such appeal.

2. Every appeal in any other matter referring to poor relief against the resolution of His Majesty's governor, with the exception of the cases described in § 50, shall be made in conformity with the provisions contained in the communal statutes relative to communal proceedings, always excepting those cases for which other provisions are specially prescribed.

3. When after any case relative to the settlement of any pauper, and the claims based thereon of any poor union for compensation for relief administered, shall have been referred to His Majesty's governor of any province, an appeal shall be entered against the main principle of the decision last communicated. Such appeal may also include any other decision previously communicated, and such decision shall not constitute any hindrance for the examination of the entire case.

§ 49.

If any person shall be dissatisfied with the decision of the Court of Exchequer, he may appeal against such decision to His Majesty, and the said appeal shall be delivered into the department for the revision of justice ("Justitierevisions expeditionen") within the term and in the manner generally prescribed with reference to appeals against decisions in civil cases.

§ 50.

If any appeal be made against any decision of His Majesty's governor in any case relative to mendicity, or any of the offences described in § 35, sect. 4, and § 40, sect. 5, such appeal shall be made in conformity with the provisions referring to appeals

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against decisions of His Majesty's governor, and the execution thereof, contained in the Statute relative to vagrants and persons sentenced to compulsory labour.

VIII.—TEMPORARY ENACTMENT.

51.

Temporary
enactment.

This Statute shall commence and take effect on and after the first day of November of the present year. This notwithstanding, the provisions herein contained relative to the settlement of paupers shall not be applied to any poor relief for which application shall be made previously to the said date, but in every such case the prescriptions hitherto in force shall be observed; and any appeal against any decision pronounced by any poor union or other authority previously to the said date shall be prosecuted in conformity with the provisions hitherto in force.

The which all whom it concerns shall obediently observe. In further verification whereof we have with our own hand subscribed our name, and caused our royal seal to be affixed hereto.
Palace of Stockholm this ninth day of June in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one.

(Signed) CARL (L.S.)
(Countersigned) G. WENNERBERG.

(To be read from the Pulpit.)

HIS MAJESTY'S ROYAL PROCLAMATION relative to Relief to be granted from Public Poor Relief Funds to Able-bodied Swedish Subjects who are delivered destitute at places situate on the Swedish Borders. Given at the Palace of Stockholm, this ninth day of June in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one.

Proclamation
to able-bodied
Swedish sub-
jects delivered
destitute at
places situate
on the Swedish
borders.

We, Carl, by the grace of God, King of Sweden, Norway, the Goths and Vandals, make known, That whereas, in consequence of our gracious proposal, the Riksdag have resolved, that, in addition to the compensation or support which, pursuant to the statute relative to the relief of the poor (this day enacted by us), shall be paid from the grant for general poor relief voted under the eighth division (huvudtiteln) of the budget, reimbursement shall likewise be allowed, in such degree as may be found requisite, for the administration by any of our governors, or, when they cannot conveniently act, by any poor board concerned, of such relief as, during a term not exceeding 14 days, may be absolutely necessary to any able-bodied but destitute Swedish subject who shall be delivered by any foreign authority at any place situated on the Swedish borders other than the proper settlement of the person so delivered: Therefore we hereby enact, that every poor board of any place situated on the Swedish borders not the seat

of one of our governors shall be entitled to apply for compensation for relief administered by it, in conformity with the provisions of this Proclamation, in the manner and order provided in § 32, sect. 1, of the Statute relative to the relief of the poor; and that each of our governors, whose duty it is to examine every such application made as aforesaid by any poor board, and transmit the same to us, together with his own opinion thereon, within the term enacted in the aforesaid paragraph and section, shall at the same time deliver in a statement of the amount which for similar purposes, and in conformity with the provisions hereinbefore contained, he shall have advanced from the funds at his disposal during the year next preceding.

The which all whom it concerns shall obediently observe.

In further verification we have with our own hand subscribed our name, and caused our royal seal to be affixed hereto.

Palace of Stockholm, this ninth day of June in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one.

(Signed) CARL. (L.S.)
 (Countersigned) G. WENNERBERG.

Report on the Relief of the Poor in NORWAY, by J. R. Crowe.

NORWAY with respect to the poor is divided into 651 districts, Districts of which 57 are in the towns, and 594 spread over the country, exclusive of the saw-mills and mining establishments, which form and maintain their own poor fund.

In each of these districts the care of the poor is attended to by a commission presided over by a clergyman in the country districts and by a magistrate in the towns, assisted by seven or eight other members, chosen from the ratepayers, with four inspectors attached to each commission, whose duty it is to assist when called upon.

In order to facilitate the inspection or supervision with respect to the merits of the applicants, the district is again generally divided into as many sub-divisions as there are members on the commission, each having his special beat to attend to.

The number of poor relieved during the year 1869 exceeded 180,000 out of a population of 1,720,500, or about 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ to every 1,000, at an expense of about 1,123,000 spd. (250,700*l.*)

Prior to the year 1863 these commissions not only had unlimited power over the funds placed at their disposal, but could levy any amount in the shape of poor rates at pleasure.

The new poor law specially guards against this arbitrary power, inasmuch as it limits the maximum amount of relief to be rendered and depriving them of that ad libitum power of levying rates.

NORWAY. — They are now bound to render an annual account of their stewardship, and to submit the budget for the coming year to the corporation, who then decide upon the amount that is to be levied, and placed at the disposal of the commission.

Medical relief. — The out-door poor receive free medical advice as well as medicine, whether they range under the class of those who receive regularly parochial relief or not.

In the towns there are 51 medical men, who receive annually salaries ranging from 100 spd. to 200 spd. (24*l.* to 48*l.*)

In the country districts there are 118, whose salaries range from 6*l.* to 12*l.*

Sanitary improvements. — Of late years an earnest and general desire has arisen ameliorating the condition of the poor, particularly by improving their dwellings, and societies have been formed for building appropriate lodging-houses, with suitable accommodation, with out-door adjuncts, such as wash-houses, &c.

Sanitary improvements have been introduced by necessary draining, public baths, easy access to pure water, &c.

Home missions. — The operations of home missionaries have been extended, a more general diffusion of the Holy Scriptures among the poor has taken place; through the liberality of the British and Foreign Bible Society, by placing at the disposal of their respective agencies in the country, at the resident clergy, as well as at the Home Mission, copies of the Scriptures in their own language.

The aim of the Home Mission, it is true, is not so much to assist the out-door pauper with pecuniary aid, as to afford the spiritual aid they stand so much in need of, and thereby displace that fickleness, indifference, and ignorance so frequently the inseparable companion of poverty, and at the same time infuse provident habits, temperance, and cleanliness, so seldom met with in the dwellings of the poor in this country. Still, as far as their means admit, they assist the poor, attend to the sick, and endeavour to provide work when possible.

There are now 67 home missions, viz., 27 in the towns, and 40 in the country.

They have also Sunday schools in ten different towns. Those in Christiania and Stavanger are attended each by upwards of 1,000 children.

Besides the Home Missions there is a Luther Institution which includes the whole country. Its aim is to diffuse Christian enlightenment, with a view to inspire a more Christian spirit, by means of religious works which it publishes, and distributed by means of efficient colporteurs, whose task it is to visit the different houses in the district prescribed to them, and especially to select the ignorant, the sick, and indigent.

This institution commenced its operations in, viz.: 1868 with 5 colporteurs in 5 parishes; in 1869 with 17 colporteurs in 29 parishes; and in 1870 with 18 colporteurs in 33 parishes.

Its labours increase every year, and the promoters feel sanguine that the institution will become a blessing to the country, as well in a spiritual as temporal point of view.

In the whole country there are now 120 charitable institutions, of which 41 are in the country, and 79 in the towns ; of these no less than 41 are in Christiania itself.

Norway

"PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS IN CHRISTIANIA."

1. *Vaterland Asylum*.—For infants, established in 1838; free from all municipal taxes, established by a legacy of 15,000 spd. and an appropriate building. Charitable institutions in Christiania.
2. *Pipervik's Asylum*.—For infants, established in 1839, by private contribution for children of the labouring classes; pays no taxes.
3. *Grouland's Asylum and Prince Carl's School*.—For infants, combined with an industrial branch, was established in 1839 by private contributions, the King subscribing 500 spd.
4. *Enerhangen's Asylum*.—For infants, established in 1843 by legacies and private contributions.
5. *Sagen's Asylum*.—For infants, established in 1864, supported by voluntary contributions.
6. *Queen Louise's Asylum*.—For infants, established in 1864; beyond an annual contribution by the municipality, the asylum is maintained by voluntary contributions. The number of children attending the school from the age of three to seven vary from 60 to 120.
7. *The Orphan Asylum*.—For infants, established in 1857 by private contribution. Free medicine provided by the municipality.
8. *Eugenie Institution*.—Established by legacies and private contributions as a home and school for poor girls of the citizens working classes. Managed by six directors and one directress. An infant asylum is attached.
9. *Society for the Support of Out-door Pensioners*.—Established in 1838. Its object is to relieve the worthy distressed, who do not seek relief from the parish, partly by direct relief, and partly by providing suitable employment. The affairs of the society are managed by a board of directors.
- The King subscribes 100 spd. per annum, besides which the society is supported by annual subscribers and voluntary contributions.
10. *The Auker's Institution*.—Founded in 1778 by Mrs. Berut Auker, for the education of 6 girls and 6 boys, to be increased to 24 if the means admitted. The conditions were that they should be orphans of poor officials or citizens of Christiania whose limited means did not enable them to provide suitable education.
11. *The Deichman's Library*.—It is managed by a direction under the supervision of the district authorities; the library and collection was presented by Deichman, for the use of the public, with the interest of 2,000 spd. for annual additions; besides the auction funds pays 100 spd. annually for the same purpose, and the municipality pays the librarian's salary.

NORWAY.

12. *Michelsen's Widowhome*.—Founded in 1734 for crippled sickly and destitute women. The home is supported by the interest from legacies and a small contribution from the municipality.

13. *The Home Mission*.—Founded in 1862. The chief aim of this society is to visit the homes of the poor, to exhort them to diligence, order, cleanliness and economy, to assist them in procuring suitable employment, and to alleviate their wants and sufferings as far as the means would admit. Aid is only granted to those who receive insufficient aid from the parish towards their support.

The society is managed by their own cashier and a committee.

14. *The Orphan Asylum*.—Established in 1783 for the maintenance and education of 50 poor legitimate children of Christiania, from the age of six and a half years to their confirmation. The asylum pays no Commune taxes.

15. *The Seamen's Rest*.—Established in 1843 for old and distressed sailors, in order to provide them with lodging and firing. A contribution is annually granted by the King for the purpose of providing working materials to such members as are able and willing to work.

16. *The Society for the aid of unfortunate registered Seamen in the District of Christiania*.—It was ordered in 1811 that societies for the aid of unfortunate seamen should be founded, by collections and contributions in the respective district to which they belonged, with a view to help shipwrecked seamen by loans or grants to enable them to return home, or in providing them with the necessary clothing for the preservation of their health, as well as those who return from foreign prisons—or who through misfortune or sickness are distressed—and to aid widows and children of seamen who have lost their lives at sea.

17. *Christiania Industrial Union*.—Founded in 1848, in aid of destitute women, by voluntary contribution. The object is partly the buying and facilitating the sale of their work, and in aiding worthy distressed women with means for buying materials for working, by procuring them needlework, &c.

18. *Oslo Hospital*.—Founded by Christian III. in 1538. This is an asylum of aged sick or poor persons, who formerly have been servants, small traders, or good artizans, or their widows, as well as good honest citizens. Citizens of Christiania have a priority of admission.

They receive board, lodging, light, and firing, and free burial. Their effects fall to the hospital.

In 1790 an institution for insane was attached. The hospital is maintained by gifts and legacies.

19. *Carl Johan's Asylum*.—Founded in 1821 by a gift from the King of 10,000 spd.; any worthy citizen of either sex or official of Christiania who has been reduced to poverty is eligible for admission, but those who have been resident two years in Vaterland have the priority in case of competition.

20. *Society for the support of distressed Artizans of Christiania*

or their Widows and Orphans.—This society was founded in 1862 by a fund of 1,900 spd. being collected by the artizans of Christiania. Their widows and children up to the age of 18 are entitled to relief, and those who have contributed to the fund have a priority.

Support is only granted once a year, until the fund reaches 1,000 spd.; after that it will be twice a year.

Relief must not be under 5 spd. and not exceed 25 spd.

The fund is to be considered as a legacy belonging to the Commune, and to be managed by five members chosen by the magistrates, of which four must be artizans of the town, and one an overseer of the poor.

21. *Magistrates Poorhouse.*—Some members not only enjoy free dwelling and firing, but weekly succour, while others only enjoy room and firing. It is maintained by legacies and gifts; it owns a capital in obligations of 24,033 spd. besides the house, with a not inconsiderable ground attached.

22. *Carl Johan's.*—Pension fund for the officers and under officers widows of the Burger guards and fire brigade. The King presented 10,000 spd. and annually makes up the interest 500 spd., which is to be in portions from thirty to seventy; it is administered by trustees.

23. *Sagbanks Poor.*—Supported partly by voluntary contributions, has room for sixty indwellers; at the end of the year it had a capital of 8,033 spd., but the income is not sufficient, so that the general poor rates has to contribute towards it.

24. *Reformatory—Andrew Tofte's legacy.*—For depraved or degenerate children; has been removed into the country, but is controlled by the magistracy of Christiania. The necessary premises were built and presented by A. Tofte.

25. *The Bierman's School.*—Bierman presented 2,000 spd., besides two requisite premises with gardens and cottages.

At the end of the year the school had a balance of 3,692. spd.

26. *A Union for succouring and protecting released criminals from the Christiania Prison, with a view to prevent their recourse to crime.*—On their being released they are placed under the guidance of one of the members of the union, which is supported by voluntary contributions.

27. *The Magdalene Asylum for unfortunate females, instituted in 1859.*—Those of that class who apply are received into the asylum, and, in addition to the religious guidance they receive, they are taught some handicraft, so as to earn their own bread, or take service; and not an inconsiderable number have become useful and reformed members of society.

It is supported by voluntary contributions and gifts from the profit of the public savings banks.

28. *Union for the Blind.*—Established in 1858; the object is for the spiritual development of the youthful blind, to teach them such requirements as will enable them to contribute towards their own support.

NORWAY.

It is maintained by yearly contributions and interest from legacies.

29. *The Christiania Blind Institution*.—Built on its own property in Aker, partly from the accumulated interest from 28 legacies. Its aim is to instruct the blind children of both sexes in the common school acquirements, as well such work as may enable them to contribute to their own support.

30. *Sunday School*.—Established in 1802 as a private institution, but in 1813 came under the management of the “Society for the town of Christiania welfare.” It has free rooms in the public school house, it is supported by legacies and voluntary contributions, and frequented mostly by trading apprentices, the domestic classes, and grown up youth.

31. *Society for the care of elder Spinsters*.—Above 40 years of age. It has a capacious handsome building with garden, is capable of receiving 24 inmates, each being entitled to two rooms and kitchen. The qualification for admittance is an annual subscription of 2 spd., or a payment once for all of 40 spd. His late Majesty presented a donation of 10,000 spd. to this establishment.

32. *Deaf and Dumb Institution*.—Established in 1849, supported by voluntary contributions and aid from the State; since 1858 it has its own building. They are taught the common school education, with some handicraft to enable them to support themselves.

33. *Union for the aid of poor Women in their confinement*.—Established by some ladies in 1850, supported solely by private annual contributions and gifts. The object is to furnish the necessary baby linen, sound and sufficient nourishment for the mother for nine days, and exceptionally with fuel. Some member of the society attends to each case.

34. *Union for the support of the poor members of the Municipal guards, their wives, widows, and children*.—It was formed in 1848, and is supported by annual contributions and interest from legacies.

35. *Diaconess Institute*.—At the instigation of the Home Mission, and after the corporation had provided the necessary buildings, was established in 1868; its object is to educate females to fit them as nurses, under the name “Nursery Sisters”; at the end of 1868 there were 5 prepared, in January 1869 the number had increased to 16.

According to an arrangement with the corporation the institution is obliged to receive such patients as the sanitary commission may deem desirable to send to it. As a rule the society however only receive women and children.

In case of an extended epidemic the sisters are bound to serve in other hospitals as far as their powers will permit; further, the institution is compelled to receive patients for account of the general poor commission as far as three-fourths of their accommodation will allow, at the rate of 1s. 1d. per diem.

In other respects they receive private patients at the rate of 1s. 7d. per diem.

The institution is supported by voluntary contributions.

36. *Union for Youth*.—Also initiated by the Home Mission in 1868; it consists at present of 60 members. Its aim is religious intercourse for mutual edification and social enlightenment. The intention also is to instruct in writing and arithmetic, and gradually to form a library.

37. *Union for Saving Helpless Youth in Christiania*.—This union was formed two years ago. Its object is to endeavour to recover helpless, homeless, and neglected youth labouring under spiritual and temporal distress, with a view of making them useful members of society.

38. *Union for the Aid of Elderly Female Servants*.—Instituted in 1864, for the benefit of females belonging to the town of Christiania who either from age, sickness, or other causes are incapable of further work, who have led a respectable life, and been true and honest in their services, and who do not receive aid from the general poor rates, an annual allowance or gift of not less than 12 spd. and not more than 36 spd. is granted, which may in case of sickness be increased.

39. *Industrial Union for Females*.—Inaugurated by the Queen Dowager Josephine, who takes a lively interest in its development.

Its object is the placing of female apprentices in suitable industrial pursuits.

The establishment of preparatory industrial schools where the necessary instruction can be obtained in drawing, construction, and arithmetic.

The granting support to deserving clever pupils for their further development in the industrial arts.

Exhibitions and rewards for female handicraft or industrial products.

The first inauguration was by the establishment of a preparatory free school for females in 1861, with a view to awaken and inspire a craving for the acquirement of means of maintaining themselves. The school commenced with 40 pupils and has gone on annually increasing, in 1869 there were 120. No less than 200 have been successfully placed out, some as governesses, others as apprentices in industrial establishments.

In the school they are taught their own language, writing, arithmetic, book-keeping, drawing, German and English.

Besides their Majesties and the Queen Dowager, there were at the end of 1868 526 subscribers.

Independant of the above-mentioned 39 charitable institutions there are 15 benefit societies belonging to as many trades and handicrafts.

NORWAY.
Christiania
poor fund for
1869.

CHRISTIANIA POOR FUND FOR THE YEAR 1869.

Receipts.

1. Poor rates for the year	sp. 118,010	4	10
2. Dues on sale of cards -	sp. 318	1	8
3. One-fourth of ditto de- rived on title deeds -	„ 2,291	4	20
4. Fines and confiscations-	„ 723	4	9
5. Half tax on brandy -	„ 12,500	0	5
6. Half tax on beer and wine - - -	„ 2,300	0	0
7. Interest on obligations- „ 189	3	23½	
8. Interest on legacies -	„ 442	2	12
9. Diverse receipts refun- ded by other parishes- „	369	1	6½
			sp. 19,085 3 12
			sp. 137,096 2 23

Expenditure.

1. Salaries - -	sp. 9,251	3	4
2. Maintenance of the deaf and dumb -	„ 531	2	13½
3. Maintenance of the blind - - -	„ 199	3	10
4. Refunded to strange parishes - - -	„ 3,229	3	2½
5. Refunded to hospital disbursements -	„ 10,361	4	14
6. Lying-in institution -	„ 100	0	0
7. Interest of debt -	„ 6,483	1	23
8. Expenses paid tax- assessors - -	„ 357	3	½
9. Insurance - -	„ 26	2	8
10. Taxes - - -	„ 47	2	0
11. Incidental Expenses- „	633	2	6½
12. Interest on diverse debts - - -	„ 177	2	12
13. Additional building to hospital - -	„ 1,248	2	11
14. Cashier for the relief of poor - -	„ 76,200	0	0
15. Insane Asylum - -	„ 9,500	0	0
16. Industrial workhouse „	4,000	0	0
			sp. 122,488 3 23

Balance towards debt
of last year -

sp. 137,096 2 23

The number of poor relieved during the year amounted to 7,096, or about 10 per cent. of the inhabitants of the town. Number relieved.

The total amount of legacies bequeathed for the several charitable institutions in Christiania, the interest of which is applied to charitable purposes, amounted to spd. 216,950—48,211L

With respect to Christiania, I have only to add that the poor are administered to by an officer appointed by the magistracy, and a clergyman appointed by a bishop, with as many of the common councilmen of the town as may be delegated. At present the number is seven.

The nominee of the magistracy is chief of the administration and president of the committee.

The functions of the commissioners consists principally;

Administration.

1. The inspection ordinary of the poor.
2. The special inspection of the poor.
3. The administration of the property of the poor fund.
4. In settling accounts with other districts, and questions as to the obligation of refunding outlay between Christiania and other districts.

As chief secretary, the committee has a competent legal adviser.

The general cashier and book-keeper of the commission is the tax collector, and town book-keeper, but as regards the outlay for special assistance there is a special cashier and accountant's office under the direct inspection of the chairman.

The town workhouse and lunatic asylum has special accounts. For inquiries as to domicile, there are two assistants appointed by, and under the superintendence of the police.

The care of the poor properly speaking is managed more immediately by five wardens, namely, one for each of the four parishes of the town, and one for the poor domiciled elsewhere; and the latter acts for any of the others in case of absence. The wardens are bound so far as possible personally to investigate the cases of the indigent.

They must have open office every forenoon, and employ their time out of office hours in visiting the homes of the indigent.

The wardens are empowered to grant preliminary assistance, but must obtain afterwards approbation of what they have done; to which end their journals are inspected once a week by the president of the commission and by the other members in turns.

Permanent assistance is granted only by the committee assembled on representation of the proper warden, at a meeting where the applicant and family shall appear.

To control the wardens, formal journals are kept, in which the wardens under 26 different rubrics have to give account of all the circumstances that have to be considered with respect to granting assistance as well as of the nature and amount of the preliminary or permanent assistance granted. All under date.

Besides the control of the warden's acts exercised by the members of the commission, and especially by their chairman, in

NORWAY. — special cases, and also otherwise by occasional visits to the domiciles of the poor, the poor law committee make every year in the spring a general review of all persons receiving assistance.

Classification of paupers with respect to right to relief. — With respect to the access of indigent persons to assistance, the law of 6th June 1863 provides in its three first paragraphs that,—

1. Idiots and orphans under 15 years shall receive the necessary assistance, and children also instruction.
 2. The aged, sick and cripples receive assistance when the committee deem it necessary, but—
 3. Able and healthy people shall not usually receive assistance.
- Yet it is left to the committee in case of need to assist such persons, specially with a view to prevent their becoming absolute paupers.

With respect to the manner of giving assistance, it is remarked that permanent assistance with entire provision is usually given by putting the paupers out in the country districts, or, under special circumstances, in the town.

These who are assisted without being completely provided for receive partly money, partly tickets for food, fuel, clothes, bed, straw, &c. Medical advice and medicine in case of sickness are given with greater liberality than assistance of any other kind.

Usually no assistance is given to persons able to work, on account of want of employment.

The workhouse. — The town has a workhouse for constrained or voluntary inmates. It is under deliberation to extend the institution so that inmates may be admitted on a large scale.

The inmates of the workhouse are employed in various branches of manufacture and domestic industry; at present the chief manufacture carried on is weaving of wool, and making various articles of cow hair.

Of other employments there may specially be named stone breaking, stone cutting, oakum picking, spinning, and knitting.

From the workhouse there is also given work to the poor in the town, such as knitting and oakum picking.

Medical relief. — The town has medical attendants for the poor, one for each warden district.

The immediate chief of these is the town physician, who also has specially to control the admission of the indigent sick to the hospital, and taking them out.

The poor law committee has a special hospital and lunatic asylum, but uses also the public State hospital.

In later times it has become more usual to provide for the indigent sick by lodging them privately, rather than by sending them to the hospital, and this applies also to lunatics.

The budget of the poor law commission is granted by the common council on proposals from the committee.

For information as to the various amounts applied in the several sections of relief, refer to the accompanying budget for the present year.

The income of the poor fund consists, besides the repayments of assistance granted and the proceeds of sales of objects of domestic industry from the hospitals and workhouse, of one-fourth per cent. duty on title deeds, and auction sales of furniture, fines, confiscations, half of the brandy, wine and beer duty, and finally of the poor tax assessed on the property and income of the ratepayers.

NORWAY.

Income of the
poor fund.

The town has eight poor houses, of which two are under the Poor houses. immediate management of the poor law commissioners, while the others have their management independently.

The regular assistance which is given in this manner consists of free lodging, with fuel and light, medical attendance and medicine.

Pecuniary assistance is also given for as much as the funds of the institution may suffice.

The number of inmates which the poor houses can accommodate is about 300.

J. R. CROWE,
British Consulate-General.
Christiania.

20th May 1872.

SIR,

Foreign Office,
January 3rd, 1872.

DENMARK

I AM directed by Earl Granville to transmit to you, to be laid before the Local Government Board, a despatch from Sir Charles Wyke, containing a Report on the relief of poor in Denmark. I am to request that this despatch may eventually be returned to this Department.

I am, Sir,
Your most obedient humble servant,
The Secretary to the (Signed) ENFIELD.
Local Government Board.

No. 123.

My LORD,

In compliance with the instructions contained in your Lordship's circular despatch of the 23rd of October last, I have the honour to transmit herewith a report upon the Poor Laws of Denmark, drawn up with great care and assiduity by Mr. Strachey.

By this your Lordship will perceive that a project is entertained here for an extensive reform of the law now existing on the basis of a complete separation by legislative enactment of public and private charitable functions, and that a government measure embodying this scheme in all its details will probably be presented to the legislature next session.

I have, &c.
(Signed) CHARLES LENNOX WYKE.
To the Earl Granville, K.G.,
&c. &c. &c.

DENMARK.

Memorandum on Poor Relief in DENMARK, by G. Strachey.

The inquiries in the official instructions are answered in this Memorandum under the following heads :—

- I.—Poor Law Relief in general ; its limitations and consequences to persons.
- II.—Legislation and Administration.
- III.—Settlements.
- IV.—Foreigners.
- V.—Relief in its various Kinds.
- VI.—Finance.
- VII.—Beggars and Vagrants.
- VIII.—Supplementary Charitable Organization.
- IX.—Statistics.
- X.—Criticism of System.
- XI.—Projected Reforms.

I.—Poor Law Relief in General, its limitations, and consequences to persons.

General right
of relief.

The right of needy persons to receive public assistance is asserted by the *Danske Lov*, of Christian V. (1683), (the fundamental code of Denmark), and by the Constitutional Chart of 1866. The 84th section of the last-named instrument runs : " He " who is unable to maintain himself and his family, and whose " support is not incumbent on any other person, is entitled to " receive assistance from the public, subject to the liabilities " imposed by law." According to the official interpretation of this principle, relief may be granted to applicants who have not yet reached the last stage of poverty, so that they may be saved by timely help from sinking into irremediate want.

Maintenance.

The right to relief is qualified by the effects of certain domestic conditions. For instance, parents must maintain their legitimate children and step children up to their 18th year, which period in the case of children of weak intellect may be extended. When man and wife live apart, and either of them be without sufficient means, their children must receive support from the parent who is able to give it. These rules hold for adoptive children, and for mothers with illegitimate offspring. Man and wife are reciprocally bound each to maintain the other. Children must support their parents when these are of disordered intellect. A man must contribute towards his illegitimate child's support. But the existence of these liabilities does not bar a pauper's right to relief when those who should maintain him are themselves without means, or otherwise beyond the reach of the administrators.

The chief consequences of relief are these :—

Results of
pauperism to
persons and
their estates.

The recipient must remain in the parish which relieves him. He is liable to official superintendence, and, in cases of bad behaviour, to disciplinary treatment and punishment, such as removal to the workhouses, with hard labour and general or separate con-

finement there, and ultimately to simple imprisonment in jail. He may have his children removed from his house and control, and be prohibited from marrying. Persons who are or have been in receipt of public relief which has not been refunded lose their electoral rights, municipal and general: (a temperament of this rule has been proposed to the Folkething in a private bill now before the house).

Other incidents flowing from the receipt of relief are:—

The pauper's effects, if he be receiving continuous support, are registered by the poor law administrators, so as to prevent him selling or pawning his property. The commune has a limited right of inheritance against his heirs, especially if he be in receipt of hospital relief. Under certain circumstances the public can claim reimbursement in the value of the maintenance or help granted. For Copenhagen the general rule is, that if a pauper's condition notably improve, he may be required to refund the expenditure incurred for him, and it is considered that a debt of this sort falls under the category of a primary liability, preceding claims for rent or service. In the towns and country parishes such a demand can only be made after the recipient's death.

The above-recited consequences may attach to anyone who neglects to provide for those who have a legal claim on him for support, since he would be juridically considered as the recipient of any relief granted to such persons by reason of his default.

(I may remark that the groundwork of the rules relating to alimentors and alimentees is contained in the Gragas, the Icelandic Code of the 12th century, which contains the outlines of a complete system of poor relief.)

II.—*Legislation and Administration.*

In Denmark there are separate rules of poor law management Different rules for town and country. for (a.) the country districts, (b.) the towns,* and (c.) the city of Copenhagen.

(a.) By the Fundamental Rescript of 1803, the management in country districts was made parochial. Relief was to be administered by a board formed of the parson, the police-master, a landowner, and three or four respectable parishioners. The parson is named as the member of the board on whom responsibility chiefly falls. He is to take the initiative in inquiry and granting relief.

The parochial boards of a prefecture (amt) † were under a How controlled.

* It may be useful to give the last population returns for the towns:—

Above 10,000 inhabitants	-	-	4
" 5-10,000	"	-	6
" 2- 5,000	"	-	24
" 1- 2,000	"	-	29
Under 1,000	"	-	6

† Denmark is divided into amter (prefectures or bailiwicks), and these into herreder-fogderier or birker (sub-prefectures). The foged (sub-prefect) is the paid chief magistrate, civil and criminal, of the herred. The amtmand (prefect or landrath) is an amateur royal nominee.

DENMARK.	superior committee, consisting of the prefect (amtmand) and other officials, lay and clerical, with certain private members.
New system of management by communal councils.	In 1867, this system ceased to have effect. The principle of self government was in that year applied to the local affairs of Denmark by the establishment of communes, each consisting of a parish, or union of parishes, and having an elective parochial council of from four to five members.*
Machinery of relief.	The parochial council has complete administrative and fiscal authority, and the whole business of poor relief was specially transferred to its hands.
Superintendence by county councils.	The parochial machinery by which relief reaches the pauper is this. The Sogneraad, or council, may depute the poor affairs of the parish to one of their own body; as a general rule the chairman, who is treasurer to the commune, takes them upon himself. He decides on each case of application for relief as he deems fit, personally making such scrutiny and arrangements as circumstances may require. The council meets six times in the year (at least) and the chairman keeps a formal record of all cases of relief for their inspection and sanction. I may observe that the clergy are not generally elected to the parochial boards in which the peasant freeholders or emphyteutic tenants, or other small yeomen would as a rule predominate. The chairman would often be a bonde, or farmer.
Old system in towns.	Next the parochial commune, in the ascending scale, the legislation of 1867 established prefectorial communes (amtskommuner) each with an elective council (amtsraad) presided by the prefect. This council, which may be called a county board, exercises a limited supervision over the parochial boards of the district, and thus has a certain incidental control over poor law management; but this chiefly occurs in respect of secondary financial arrangements to be hereafter named.
New system.	(b.) Under the old system relief in towns was administered by boards analogous in constitution to those described above for parishes in the country. Here again the parson was, so to speak, the acting overseer.
Machinery of relief.	In 1868 the municipal institutions of Denmark were remodeled, and all poor law business, together with the superintendence of charitable institutions, devolved on the newly established elective town councils. These bodies may conduct the relief of the poor by a standing committee, or otherwise, as they may think fit. They may also appoint unpaid overseers to perform the councils duties in this sort. They can make regulations of detail at pleasure.

The management of poor relief falls properly on the borgmester, who is usually chairman of the section of the council to which such business is attributed. He would often personally administer relief; in some cases he would be assisted by unpaid overseers, as

* The amtsraad may alter the numbers. The minority of the board are chosen by all inhabitants of the parish of 25 years of age who are political electors, and have paid their communal taxes. The majority is chosen by the fifth part of such electors as above, who pay the highest rate of taxation.

before mentioned, and the course of relief would then be similar DENMARK.
to that described below for the city of Copenhagen.

(c.) The history of poor relief in Copenhagen is as follows:— Old system in Copenhagen.
In 1799 there was established a board of unpaid guardians of the poor who were named by royal warrant. In 1815 and 1828 this organization was superseded by the appointment of a salaried board: the city being divided for relief purposes into 12 wards, and these again into districts.

Under the new municipal law (of 1857) all business of the kind Present system. in point was transferred to one of the city burgomasters.* The 12 wards were altered to 19, each of which has a salaried medical attendant, and several overseers. The present number of Unpaid overseers. overseers is 82; they serve without salary for six years, are appointed by the burgomaster from the electoral body, and it is expected that they will continue to discharge their functions for the period named unless excused on valid grounds.

This system having been found defective (see chapter X.) the Reform to take effect next year. municipality have recently (1865–1871) had under consideration the whole question of poor law relief, and have now decided on a reform which will include the following changes and improvements.

The third burgomaster is to appoint 12 official overseers in lieu Paid overseers. of the existing unpaid class. They will receive an annual salary of from 1,000 to 12,000 dollars (9 rix dollars = 1L) with office materials, messenger service, &c., and 150 dollars for fire and lighting. They must live in their respective wards and keep open a proper office, which is to contain a separate consulting room for the district doctor. These overseers may, if the magistracy think fit be helped by unpaid assistants. The district offices to be under two departmental offices which will control all poor affairs, including business relating to relief in the city hospitals and from charitable foundations. The general inspector's office is abolished.

In place of the present medical officers, two doctors to be appointed to each ward; salary 500 dollars, with fees for each visit and consultation. The doctors to live, as far as circumstances admit, in their own districts; to receive patients at home, and visit them in their houses.

Paupers wanting relief in hospital to apply to an overseer and doctor, who may order his reception. Should these officers disagree the case to be referred to the department.

As these changes are shortly to be carried out, I have considered them as properly noticeable in the present connection; but their mention has interrupted my account of the mechanism of relief, to which I now return.

Applicants present themselves to a district overseer, and, if the case be one of sickness, to the medical attendant. If the overseer approve the application he recommends it to the proper office of

* The municipality consists of a president (who is a crown nominee), four elective burgomasters, four councillors, and a representative board. The active poor relief administrator-in-chief is called general inspector.

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the third burgomaster's department where it is dealt with according to its merits. The definite order for relief, whether in alms, medical help, or lodging, or transfer to the workhouse, is warranted by the burgomaster, the general inspector of the poor department (see before in note).

III.—Settlements.

The Danish description and classification of the various circumstances which govern the incidence of liability for pauper relief is too unlike the English to admit of the contents of this chapter being arranged, according to our legal phraseology, under such heads as settlements, natural or derivative, acquired, and so forth.

Relief generally follows rule of domicile.

The fundamental Danish principle is that relief shall be granted temporarily in the commune where application is made for it, permanently in or at the charge of the commune where the applicant has settlement. On the completion of his 18th year the pauper is chargeable on the commune where his parents, at his birth, had settlement, that is, on the place of their regular domicile. Had they no such home, then on any commune were they were otherwise chargeable. The 18th year passed, he can demand relief in any place where he has resided for five years. If he has lived in more than one commune, then he is at charge wherever he has last resided five years and over.

Doubtful cases.

When neither birthplace nor last sufficient domicile can be discovered, the applicant is relieved in the commune where at any time in the five years immediately preceding he has lived longest, no period under a year qualifying. Should no such place be discoverable, he is to receive local relief.

Special for women and children.

There are special dispositions for women and children. Married women follow their husbands home, even if living elsewhere or separated from him; so do widows or divorced women, unless they change their domicile. The home of children is that of their parents, with the limitation stated in the present paragraph. If their mother after her husband's death go to a new home the children are chargeable there.

Illegitimate children follow their mother's domicile, with the same limitation as before. Her domicile is any place where ten months before such children's birth she had a permanent abode or service. Should she have no such home, the children are chargeable in the place where at the time of their birth the mother is entitled to obtain relief.

Children born of women on journeys are sent to the parent's home. When a woman with children legitimate or illegitimate marries, she and her child are chargeable in her husband's place of residence, unless she has been divorced, in which case such of her children as may be living with him follow his condition.

Domicile, how defined and limited.

The words home and residence require explanation. For the purposes of settlement, residence must be continuous, independent, and voluntary.

The continuity need not be completely physical; its decisive

condition is the retention of domicile or service in the commune concerned. Absence, even if frequent, unless made with the intention of transferring home or service to another place, does not constitute an interruption. A man who does not actually reside in a place may derive the quality of continuous settlement through his family living there, provided he contributes to their maintenance. It follows that a married seaman may fulfil the condition of continuity in spite of his absence at sea. An unmarried seaman cannot do so.

Independence of residence is incompatible with the receipt of relief, whether accepted by a man for himself, or for his children, or for his wife during his absence from home. The main exceptions to this rule are:—

A person may, without compromising his residence as independent, accept relief in the place where he has been temporarily resident (provided the amount or equivalent has not been applied for, or refunded by his own commune,*); or receive six weeks medical help or attendance for syphilis; or free cure in the Royal Copenhagen Hospital; or money aid from charitable foundations; or from the so-called poor chest, a semi-official parochial resource which will be described hereafter (chapter VIII).

The quality implied in the adjective voluntary chiefly concerns children and soldiers. For instance the movements of a minor or of an idiot are not considered to be voluntary. A soldier is marched from place to place by authority; a prisoner in jail is detained by force; such individuals, therefore, have no settlement in their residences for the time being. Into the position as regards this point of military and naval artizans, of deaf-mutes, or finally of "the Horrists of His Majesty's the King's Body Guard;" I do not conceive that a foreign investigator of the Danish Poor Law system will be eager to enquire.

It was said above that every pauper is entitled to local relief; Rules for temporary relief. but that his permanent support must be undertaken by the commune where he is properly chargeable. Further, every commune must grant sick help from its own resources for any period not exceeding six weeks to casual applicants who have been resident for three months. Either the commune where the pauper receives temporary relief (this does not include lodging or rent allowance) or the commune where he has settlement, can insist on his transfer to the last named. If the pauper resists removal, the interference of the police is invoked; but removal does not generally occur until after correspondence on his case between the commune concerned, or where disputes arise after a decision, of the Minister of the Interior, his place of settlement is finally established. Removal.

It is illegal to send anyone out of a parish under pretence that he may hereafter fall a public burden, or on the same ground to prevent the settlement of a stranger to the commune who can support himself and does not demand relief.

* The question of reimbursement is treated under Ch. VI. Finance.

DENMARK. I may here notice the liability of the Jewish, and French reformed, communities to support their own poor. These exceptions are the consequence of special arrangements which have no present connection with questions of religious tolerance.

IV.—*Foreign Paupers.*

Foreign paupers.

The above rules apply equally to foreigners, except that the settlements by birthplace cannot of course have effect in their case. But to qualify they must have been resident in Denmark for a period of at least five years, and such residence must have been absolutely without break, counting backwards from the date of the application for relief.

Foreigners who have not the said five years qualification are chargeable wherever they apply to the parish.

Foreign governments cannot be asked for reimbursement of expenditure incurred as above; except in the case of subjects of theirs landed on the Danish coast and requiring relief. If the consul of such persons refuse to assist them, or if their government have no consul at the place concerned, local relief must be granted them, and the costs may be claimed through the proper diplomatic channel from the government in question.

When a married foreigner who has no settlement in Denmark quits the kingdom, and his family fall into want, they are chargeable on the commune where the wife had settlement before her marriage. These are the chief rules regarding foreigners. Foreign paupers are sometimes put on board ship, carried to sea, and landed on a suitable quay in the port of some neighbouring power.

V.—*Relief in its various kinds.*

Objects and nature of relief. The older legislation indicates three classes of paupers, to each of which a specific kind of relief is assigned:—

Outdoor relief.

- (1.) Old and infirm persons; these are to receive aid in kind, or money, clothing, lodging, firing, and medical attendance.
- (2.) Orphans or children whose parents cannot maintain them, are to be boarded with suitable persons, or otherwise properly brought up.
- (3.) Persons or families who are in need of partial help, are to be assisted to find work, and if this cannot be obtained are to receive assistance as under (1.).

Medical aid.

Other general rules are, that after three months continuous residence in a commune, any individual may claim free medical help and medicine for six weeks. Needy persons have a general claim on the commune for free lodging. Funerals of paupers fall on the parish; so does the care of needy women in childbed. Special facilities for relief are granted to members of certain benefit societies.

Indoor relief.

So far out-door relief. In-door relief, which is as yet but partially organised in Denmark, is granted in poorhouses, work-houses, alms' houses, as in other countries.

Aged and infirm persons, particularly those who need lodging, would be properly admitted to the poorhouse, where one exists. Able bodied unmarried paupers should be sent to the ordinary workhouse. Bad characters to the forced labour workhouse (*tvangsarbeidsanshalt*), or as I may say, correctional workhouse.

The code of Christian V. (1683) prescribes that there shall be Poorhouses, a poorhouse (*fattighuus*) in every parish in Denmark, but this injunction has not been universally obeyed. Many or most of the existing poorhouses are miserable places, only fit, says an official report, to be pulled down, being chiefly old labourers' cottages of the worst description.

Of ordinary workhouses (*arbeidshuus*) there may be some 150 in Workhouses. Denmark. They exist in all towns, and some have been built by parish unions; most country workhouses are parochial. The inmates are required to work, but not after a regular programme; they are permitted to go out with leave.

The correctional workhouse belongs to the amt or prefecture, Correctional or say county, but some counties have no institution of this sort. Such workhouses being of a correctional character, are destined for paupers in the receipt of relief who have been guilty of misconduct, and for applicants of bad character. The labour is according to a definite printed code. Any parish which has insufficient workhouse room, or none, or which has refractory subjects on its hands, may with the amtmann's leave make use of the correctional workhouse of the county.

The work done in these institutions is oakum picking, weaving, mat and broom making, &c. indoors, stone breaking, &c. out of doors. Pauper artizans follow their trade avocations as far as circumstances admit.

It should be noticed that married men are seldom sent to the workhouse, as their families in such case come upon the parish for relief.

An account has been lately published of a workhouse in a parish Instance of an of this island, which answers as far as I can see to our ancient industrial Houses of Industry. The parish has set up a building with workhouse. 80 acres of land attached, four horses, 15 cows, and one bull; these animals will hereafter be 25, besides 12 sheep and 16 swine. There are 50 to 60 inmates who work at their regular avocations. The field work, &c. of the establishment is done by paid domestics. This is reported to be a good speculation, and one calculated to enrich the parish hereafter.

To give a notion of the scale of parish help as granted in Denmark, I extract a few facts and figures from a pamphlet issued by a voluntary relief society, which shows how matters stand in the capital.

- (1.) Continuous relief usually only to families allowed for three Scale of Relief. years at a time, for lodging 1*l.* 16*s.* to 2*l.* 5*s.* yearly, ryebread to value of 1*s.* 10*d.* a week for each child, with one set of clothes in the year worth 1*l.* 5*s.*

DENMARK. (2.) Casual relief generally in winter for 12 weeks, also to families ; rye bread as above for each child.

For details respecting workhouses, &c. in Copenhagen, see Appendix.

VI.—*Finance.*

How funds for relief are raised. There are in Denmark no poor rates. Expenditure for poor relief enters like any other item into the communal and municipal budgets. The communal budget (in country parishes only) is submitted to the amtmann of the district for inspection, and its whole amount may not exceed that of the preceding budget by more than a certain quota fixed by law. Country parishes or towns may incur any expenditure for legal objects which can be met by their ordinary ways and means; but they may not raise loans without the sanction of the Minister of the Interior, and this circumstance gives the minister an incidental control over outlay for the purposes of poor relief; for it is not likely that a country parish, at any rate, will be able to build a workhouse from its regular revenues. From all this it results that the financial authority as regards poor relief is almost entirely decentralized.

Repartition of expenditure.

Reverting to the rules for the repartition of the costs of pauper relief, I have to observe that any commune granting aid to an applicant who has not settlement there is entitled to demand repayment of its expenditure from the place properly chargeable; but this right is clogged with the qualification that no such claim is good unless sent in within six weeks from the cessation of the relief, except in cases where the commune liable is not immediately discoverable, or the relief is of long duration. The costs of a pauper's removal fall on the two communes concerned. A parish relieving a pauper who has no apparent settlement may recover from the chest of the amt or prefecture, or from the towns of the said amt (or county). Disputes on questions of settlement are referred to the amtmann, or to the Minister of the Interior.

VII.—*Beggars and Vagrants.*

Beggars and vagrants.

The general rule is that beggars are liable on conviction to 15 days imprisonment, with bread and water; vagrants to 30 days of the same punishment. Children under 15 years of age are not personally punishable; but their parents, if conniving, may be held responsible, and treated accordingly. Any vagrant person who has no apparent means of subsistence, may be sent home to his parish by the police.

The practical temperaments of these rules are not inconsiderable. I am told that in the country and in the smaller towns there is a systematic tolerance of local beggars, but that intrusive beggars are dealt with as the law directs. In Copenhagen the police are strict, and street mendicancy is very seldom seen.

VIII.—*Supplementary Charitable Organization.*

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The institutions proper to be named here, such as hospitals, almshouses, refuges, relief societies, and the other similar associations in which modern benevolence finds expression, are tolerably numerous in Denmark, but no collective account of them has been published, nor do the data for such a compilation appear to exist. Between England and other countries there can never be a fair comparison, where charitable organization is concerned. But, leaving England out of the question, it may fairly be said that the Danes are very benevolent towards misfortune, and I do not believe that in Germany, for instance, private munificence is as fertile as it is in Denmark.

For the provinces I could reproduce barren lists of lay convents, asylums, dotations, &c., &c., which are under the supervision of the amtmænd, or the Minister of Justice. But these institutions or funds are largely reserved for middle-class indigence, and, in some instances, even for aristocratic opulence, and it would be a long, perhaps a hopeless, task to detach from the whole mass the contribution afforded therefrom to pauper relief proper.

For Copenhagen, I can give some general results. According to the statement of a local committee, which two years ago attempted to summarize the efforts of voluntary charity in the capital, the minimum amount in money and values annually dispensed in Copenhagen was from 600,000 to 700,000 rix dollars, or 67,000*l.* The population at that time may have been 170,000 souls, and the official poor relief charges for the same year were about 600,000 rix dollars, or 66,000*l.* This estimate nominally included the whole expenditure of almshouses, asylums, legacies, soup kitchens, warm wards, &c., &c., but it was no doubt incomplete and below the mark.

Some of the charities of this class are of comparatively old standing. Amongst the recent efforts of voluntary benevolence I may name the relief societies of the capital, instituted within the last two or three years. The wants of the poor are now supervised by nine such societies, which work by districts. They grant small loans, distribute cash, bread, soup, and other food tickets, clothing, &c., besides granting medical help, and in some cases lending books. I am informed that the joint revenue of these societies in the last year was about 5,000*l.* There is nothing novel in their organization; details as to their income, method of work, &c., which might seem too minute for this place, are given in an appendix to the memorandum.

A question is asked in the interrogatory respecting recent efforts to provide houses for the lower orders. This point has been elaborately discussed in my First Report on the Industrial Classes of Denmark for (1870).

Under this head I may notice the recently instituted parish poor chests, which are under the control of a special elective committee. They receive voluntary contributions, and have certain

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official sources of income, such as the fees paid on the public reading of documents, small taxes on concerts, amusements, &c., &c., on delivery of freedom of towns, &c.

The funds available from these chests are, however, generally insignificant, and the institution is of no interest, except for the development which it would receive under the scheme of poor law reform, described in a subsequent chapter.

Education.

No question is asked on educational advantages. It is, however, worth naming that primary schooling is gratuitous, except in Copenhagen, and even here needy persons can practically get their children educated free of expense.

IX.—Statistics.**No exact returns of paupers.**

As no returns of paupers are transmitted from country parishes or towns to any central department, the number of persons in Denmark receiving public relief can only be indirectly, perhaps partially, ascertained.

Evidence from census.

Some evidence as to numbers may be obtained from the census lists, on which, however, casual paupers are not entered as recipients of relief (*Almissenydende*). The census, taken on February 1, 1870, shows a general total of 45,664 individuals on the parish as follows:—

	Towns.		Country.	
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
Ordinary - - - -	3,226	5,526	15,056	21,804
In correctional workhouses - -	37	15	—	—
Total - - -	3,263	5,541	15,056	21,804
General Total	-	-	45,664	

Other official statistics.

On these figures I have to remark that, according to a reliable estimate, the paupers receiving interim relief in the neediest quarter of Copenhagen are at least as numerous as those who are permanently on the parish. This fact indicates the kind of corrections to which the census figures are liable. It is further to be noticed that a committee (see hereafter) recently appointed to consider the whole subject of the present report, collected for their own purposes the best pauper returns they could procure from town and country. I append these returns in their original shape, suppressing, however, the specification of towns and counties.

	1. No. of Families.			2. No. of Individuals in Families.			3. Paupers over Fourteen Years.			4. Idem under Fourteen Years.			5. Totals of 2, 3, 4.			
	1867.	1868.	1869.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1867.	1868.	1869.	
Copenhagen	1,287	1,346	1,257	4,347	4,684	4,806	2,124	2,276	2,360	698	684	712	7,164	7,594	7,378	
Towns	-	1,558	1,685	1,699	5,406	5,862	5,835	3,095	3,234	3,279	1,657	1,699	1,706	10,160	10,796	10,820
Country	-	8,326	9,044	9,327	27,817	30,387	21,404	16,078	16,550	16,785	6,919	7,438	7,847	50,814	54,384	56,126
Totals	-	11,171	12,075	12,273	37,578	40,883	41,635	21,297	22,060	22,424	9,989	9,821	10,265	68,138	73,773	74,324

Here is a very different result, although these figures, like the above quoted, apply only to individuals in regular relief. According to the committee, on the last day of December 1869 the recipients of such relief were 74,324, or about 4½ per cent. to population. According to the census they were on the 1st February 1870 only 45,664, although February is the month when the severity of the Baltic climate is telling most heavily on needy persons.

I cannot hear of, or myself suggest, any explanation of this discrepancy. Its existence lowers in a singular degree the value of the following optimist appreciation of the relative conditions of paupers relief in Denmark in 1860 and 1870 respectively. The report says of 1,000 persons those receiving relief were :—

—	Copenhagen.	Towns.	Country.	Denmark.
1860	14·00	18·79	20·81	19·97
1870	19·22	22·29	26·91	25·56

For previous years we find—

1840	-	-	-	29·98
1850	-	-	-	23·03

The population of the kingdom proper was—

On 1st February 1860	-	-	-	1,600,551	Souls.
On 1st February 1870	-	-	-	1,784,741	

This shows for the present territory a mean annual increase of 1·29 per cent.

I could quote very alarming opinions as to the state of pauperism in Copenhagen, such as that in the poorest quarter of the city, Christianshavn;* every other individual is in the re-

* The census gives for Copenhagen, with 181,291 souls, only 3,485 paupers; the committee's return, 74,324. According to the Local Relief Society, Christianshavn alone, with its 12,000 to 15,000 souls, has from 5,000 to 6,000 persons on the parish.

DENMARK. ceipt of parochial or private relief. But estimates of this sort are liable to large deductions, on account of the particular writer's or speaker's "personal equation," for which I, of course, could not compute the proper correction. Some information in this matter will be found in Working Class Report for 1870.

Cash expenditure. The statistics of pauper relief finance for recent years are appended in their published form, with the due abbreviations, and the omission of the statement of the proportion between money and in kind relief for the country districts.

9 rix dollars = 1l.

Year.	Country.	Copenhagen.	Other Towns.	Totals. Rix Dollars.
1858	958,651	342,565	186,833	1,487,549
1859	968,095	345,079	186,160	1,499,334
1860	1,090,180	365,194	190,044	1,645,418
1861	1,160,400	397,466	215,308	1,773,174
1862	1,270,114	438,581	236,971	1,940,616
1863	1,283,047	416,246	254,729	1,904,022
1864	1,249,033	459,310	259,714	1,968,057
1865	1,249,121	457,973	258,835	1,965,429
1866	1,483,894	479,687	271,621	2,245,202
1867	1,810,898	522,063	291,116	2,624,077
1868	1,984,098	576,379	332,383	2,892,870

For 1867 the official expenditure in Copenhagen was about 8s. 9d. a head to population. In 1859 the rate would only have been about 5s. per head.

For further details as to Copenhagen, see Appendix.

X.—Criticism of System.

Section X. of the official inquiry asks for a judgment on the "effect of the actual system of relief upon the comfort, character, "and conditions of the people." If I could give a satisfactory verdict on this point, I should evidently have made immense progress in philosophy, for I should be able to refer the variations of national morals and manners to their appropriate sources in laws and ministerial placards. Such a task being beyond me, I shall confine myself to appending here some Danish criticisms on the poor law system of the country, as above described.

Report of Commission on Poor Relief. In 1869 a commission, composed of large landowners, officials, doctors, &c., was appointed by the Crown, to consider the whole question of public relief; of this commission, the actual Prime Minister and the Minister of War were originally members. The report of this body has just been published, and its opportune appearance enables me to give the result of the commission's labours, and shortly to resume their suggestions. The report, which is partly practical, partly reflective and philosophical, remarks that the duties of society to the pauper are not exhausted

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by the mere grant of material assistance. That besides money and money's worth, the needy man requires advice and moral support; that to take proper effect, aid should be bestowed with accurate attention to times, individuals, degrees; that the relief granted through an official public agency does not fulfil these conditions, being mechanical and careless in its application. In Copenhagen, e.g., says the report, it has not been found possible to carry out the existing rules for pauper relief. These are based on right principles, but they assume for their exercise an acquaintance with individual character, means, and circumstances, which the relieving officials do not possess. The overseers do not classify and discriminate; glad to escape the odium which attaches to a too scrutinizing distribution of the public bounty, or from accusations and suspicions of partiality, they fall into habits of blind and wholesale benevolence.

Deficiencies of
Danish system.

This view is likewise maintained in a pamphlet lately published by one of the Copenhagen relieving medical officers, Dr. Ulrik, who says that the unpaid city overseers are for the most part small shopkeepers, who, being tied to their counters, have only time and opportunities for the most superficial and illusory examination into the cases brought before them. He adds that sick help is granted with a mischievous facility; that, for instance, it is quite common for families and individuals who are well capable of supporting themselves to be in the receipt of gratuitous medical aid and medicines. The doctor further objects to the system of casual winter help, and also to the plan of granting allowances for rent, which, he says, has had a most demoralising effect, bringing on the parish individuals who can easily support themselves by work. Dr. Ulrik asserts that the indiscriminate assignment of medical help has had the notorious effect of discouraging the development of sick clubs, and, *pro tanto*, of repressing the growth of provident habits, independence, and self-assertion amongst the labouring classes.

Abuse of dis-
pensary aid.

The pamphlet sharply criticises the Ladegard, or principal Copenhagen workhouse, which, he said, is an example of what such an institution ought not to be. He says in this workhouse 6,000 pots (quarts) of brandy are annually sold to the inmates, and tobacco for above 1,000 dollars. Also, that the arrangements and discipline are so defective that in 1867 about half the inmates absconded with property and clothes belonging to the establishment. The doctor objects to the foreign system, partially introduced in the Ladegard, of making workhouses industrial establishments, and thus bringing State-supported pauper labour into competition with free industry. He adds, "The introduction of the English workhouse system is a pressing necessity. An indispensable condition of this system's adoption is, as already observed, the maintenance of a regular discipline, the prohibition of the inmates *ad libitum* going and coming, and the stoppage of the use of certain luxuries like tobacco and brandy."

Defects of
workhouse
system.

Dr. Ulrik refers to the official statistics of pauperism, and remarks that no conclusions can be drawn from them as to the official statistics.

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increase or diminution of the number of persons in receipt of relief. He notes, however, that, looking to the circumstance that between 1855 and 1860 the number of paupers in Jutland had declined, whilst in the rest of the kingdom it had remained stationary, and to the fact that the workhouse system is specially developed in that peninsula, it would be reasonable to ascribe a beneficial effect to the extension of indoor relief. After a study of the facts and figures of detail adduced by the doctor in support of this opinion (and he has minute knowledge of the matter, both local and general), I conclude that the workhouse system in Jutland has proved more economical than the plan of general out-door relief, but I see no proof, or even probability, that the number of paupers has varied concomitantly with the growth of workhouses.

Further, on
workhouse ac-
commodation.

The last remark I shall quote from this valuable pamphlet is this, "That from the undue distribution of the charitable forces of the country, there is in Denmark considerable extravagance of expenditure. Larger workhouses are wanted. Instead of buildings with accommodation for from 50 to 100 persons, it would be desirable to have workhouses with ten times that capacity, to be erected by unions of parishes or towns. Thus the expenses of management would be diminished, and the proper classification of inmates facilitated according to age, sex, and capacity."

Further, on
dispensary aid.

Finally, I extract from the report previously cited (special remarks of Dr. Krebs) an observation on the poor law system as carried out in the country parishes. "In many, perhaps in most, country places, it is the custom for the mass of the labourers, and nearly all the lodgers, to demand and receive medical aid and medicine at the parish expense." He says that the fatal facility with which such aid is allowed induces numbers of able-bodied men to make, as it were, an income out of slight or sham indispositions, old wounds, and the like. When an individual is in receipt of sick help, it follows that he is unable to work, and thus he acquires an indisputable claim to general relief.

XI.—Projected Reforms.Proposed or-
ganization of
voluntary
relief.

The committee named in the preceding chapter recommends the complete separation, by legislative enactment, of public and private charitable functions. They advise the literal restriction of public relief to such individuals as are actually unable to work, that is to say, to children, aged, and weak persons. Settlement to depend no longer on domicile, but exclusively on birthplace. The present territorial and administrative arrangements to be maintained. A large development to be given to the workhouse system. Out-door relief to be sparingly allowed. Foreigners who have not been naturalized to have no claim on the parish. Casual foreign paupers to receive temporary local relief.

Reform of
present system.

The committee further recommend that the official system be supported by the organization, under legislative sanction, of general

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voluntary relief. The financial basis of this would consist in the voluntary contributions of the charitably disposed, in certain dotations, which may with propriety be attributed to this object, in the resources of the parish poor chests (previously described), augmented by certain small fees and fines. Management to be by an elective board. No charity to be dispensed to the recipients of public relief. Investigation of cases to be personal and severe; money to be given in exceptional instances only.

These are the main features of the proposals of the committee. I understand that a Government measure based on this scheme may possibly be presented to the legislature next session. Whatever bill be introduced, the democratic agricultural majority of the Folkething will assuredly insist on large modifications suited to the view which the agrarian mind takes of its own specific interests.

G. STRACHEY.

Copenhagen,
December 19th, 1871.

APPENDIX.

1. As a sample of the operations of the Copenhagen relief societies. societies the following details may be of interest. The society of the suburb in which I live (Frederiksberg) investigated, in its first year of existence, 742 cases of supposed distress, of which 685 were relieved; in 1869-70 (the second year), 431 new applications were made, 340 cases were relieved, and 289 of the old recipients were allowed further aid. In 1868-69 the income was 5,100 dollars (555*l.*) from subscriptions, 1,000 dollars from other sources. For 1869-70 the income was 8,000 dollars (778*l.*)

The parish is divided into 10 districts, which are supervised by 120 (about) visitors, and a central board. The funds are chiefly raised by subscription lists which are sent from house to house all through the parish. The greater part of the cash subscribed is taken in small monthly instalments.

I believe that there are not more than one or two societies of this class in the provincial towns.

2. Official poor statistics for Copenhagen, from the finance accounts for 1870:—

In 1870 the testamentary funds at the disposal of the city official administrators amounted to 78,000*L.*, 2,892 pauper patients were received into the General Hospital, which with its filial establishments had further 1,645 permanent inmates.

At the close of the year, 5,055 persons were receiving regular out-door relief. In money relief there was paid 3,450*l.*, of rye bread 600,000 lbs. In pauper schools 1,206 children were educated. In the three ordinary workhouses at the close of the year were 382 persons; casual relief was given to 7,684 persons; 646 children were received into asylums.

The special statistics for the great workhouse or Ladegaard were as follows:—

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In the workhouse proper were received 3,120 men, 911 women; in the correctionary workhouse 244 persons. The profits from the industrial department were 4,500*l.* Into the new department for homeless persons there were received from October 18 to December 31, 29 families with 133 persons, of whom 16 persons were remaining on December 31. Families may usually live together for 14 days and are then separated. Except in this department, men and women are kept in different buildings.

From the legacy fund 602 persons were receiving regular relief; in the city almshouses 524.

3. Prices of rye :—

I mention that the prices of rye, of which grain the common Danish bread is made, have been as follows :—

1842	-	-	49	=	100
1850	-	-	58	=	100·9
1860	-	-	68	=	98·0

the number 100 being taken as unit for reference. Far from being able to discover any connection, however superficial, between increased pauperism and rising rye prices, I am disposed to think that I could show a *nexus* between low rye prices and an increasing pauper roll. But in Denmark, the cost of most of the necessaries of life (rye excluded) has increased from 20 to 50 per cent. within the last 25 years.

FRANCE.Report on the Public Relief of the Poor in FRANCE,
by E. Lee Hamilton.

General principles.

THE public relief of the poor rests in France upon the moral obligation of the State, the pauper having no claim to support according to any written law now in force. The non-revolutionary governments and assemblies of France, while acknowledging the necessity for a system of public relief, have, indeed, always repudiated any positive obligation on the part of the nation to support the poor. "When the virtue of charity," says M. Thiers in a paper written many years ago upon this subject, "ceases to be private and becomes collective, it is essential that it should preserve its character of a virtue: that is to say, that it should remain voluntary and spontaneous; for otherwise it would cease to be a virtue and would become a dangerous compulsion."

This opinion has been much strengthened of late years in the minds of the more conservative classes by the alarming spread of socialist doctrines among the working population; and the tendency of legislation is consequently very unfavourable to the support by the State of the able-bodied poor. Various endeavours have, however, been made to reconcile the denial of the right to relief with the manifest necessity for an organization of public charity. Among other enunciations on the subject, I find it

asserted, in a report recently drawn up for the Minister of the Interior, that no one has a right to public relief, but that the bestowal of such relief is a duty incumbent on the State. This somewhat illogical statement of the case is, I understand, disavowed by authority.

It must not be thought, however, that the question is one which has remained within the domain of economic discussion; attempts to give it a practical solution have not been wanting. Not to do more than allude to the violent scenes of 1848 and other periods, which were closely connected with the supposed right of the indigent workman to Government support, it may be affirmed that one of the first consequences of every French revolution has been an attempt to inaugurate compulsory relief.

The immediate result of the Revolution of 1789 was to substitute Poor laws of the Revolution.

for the system of public benevolence then existing a system of support founded upon legal rights. The provision for the relief of the poor had consisted, under the old monarchy, of many local foundations, mostly of a clerical character, but placed, after the end of the 17th century, to a certain extent under secular management, and doing much excellent service. All these the revolution swept away, and their property was confiscated for the benefit of the Treasury. As a committee of the Constituent Assembly had recently proclaimed the doctrine that every person when in want has a right to be supported at the expense of the State, the Constitution of the 3rd of September provided for the organization of a general establishment of public relief; and on the 19th of March 1793, the legislature, in order to carry this provision into practice, repeated the assertion that the relief of the poor was a national debt, and placed in the budget a sum to be distributed to the departments for the purpose. Both begging and alms-giving were formally prohibited, and a decree of the 22nd Floréal, An II. (May 1794), ordered the formation of a book of national charity, on which all indigent agriculturists and artizans, if aged or infirm, were to be inscribed, and were to receive, the former 160 francs and the latter 120 francs a year, a provision being also made for their mothers and wives. This decree, however, was not even partially put into execution. Indeed, it is affirmed that the annual funds required would have exceeded the yearly revenue of France. Other legislative innovations followed. Such of them as were carried into practice only resulted in drying up the old sources of revenue without substituting any effective new ones; for the State had undertaken a responsibility which its heavy general expenditure prevented it from meeting. The sufferings of the poor rapidly increased, and it became necessary for the Directory to retrace its steps. The centralized organization of relief was abandoned, and it was determined to restore to the charitable establishments their individual character, and abolish the system of legal charity which the Convention had inaugurated. This was begun by the decree of the 28th Germinal, An IV., which suspended the sale of the property belonging to the charitable institutions; it was continued by the law of the

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16th Vendémiaire, An V., which restored to the hospitals such of their possessions as were not already sold; and it was virtually completed by the law of the 7th Frimaire, An V., which established the organization for the relief of the poor on its present basis.

Present organization.

This organization, which is confidently held up by French writers to foreign imitation, is accordingly essentially local. The Government contributes, indeed, by the maintenance of several general institutions to the sum total of relief afforded, and retains extensive powers of administration and control; but the provision for the poor is almost exclusively derived from local foundations subsidized from the budgets of the commune and the department, and fed by the stream of private charity, which is, as far as possible, diverted into a public channel. The municipal and departmental subsidies, though recurring year after year in the same proportions, really constitute an optional and incidental expenditure. There are also a few heterogeneous sources of revenue, some of which are of the nature of an indirect contribution; but no poor-rate, or tax levied directly for the support of the poor, is in existence.

The laws of the fifth year of the republic, which abolished the system of legal charity, and decentralized the whole relief service, established no exception to the general and fundamental principles of modern French administration, and the official subordination belonging to it. The "Assistance Publique" is one of the public services, and is placed under the direct control of the superior authorities; while, at the same time, the establishments which compose it have an individual legal status, which enables them to possess, buy, sell, and inherit property. Their funds, exclusive of the subsidies they receive from the municipalities, the departments, or the State, have been formed out of ancient charitable foundations, and have increased day by day through private bounty. The principle which lies at the root of these establishments is that it belongs in the first instance to the commune to distribute the public relief, whatever its source; in default of the commune, to the department; and in default of the department, to the central government.

The State takes its share of voluntary charity either by means of local subsidies to the establishments under its control, or by special grants of public money.

The public establishments for the relief of the poor are mostly communal; but some, as for instance the asylums for lunatics and for abandoned children, are departmental. A still smaller number, such as the National Deaf and Dumb Hospital, the Asylum of the Quinze-Vingts, &c., are maintained at the expense of the central authorities.

An establishment for in-door or out-door relief may be founded by a commune or a department by means of a minute of the municipal or general council (as the case may be), which is submitted for approval to the Minister of the Interior.

A private charitable institution sometimes acquires the importance of a public establishment. In such cases, it may obtain what

is called a "decreet de public utility," which places it under the protection and control of the State. It then acquires civil rights, and may hold and inherit property; but it can only be dissolved by the Government.

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The public institutions for the support of the poor may be classed under five principal heads, namely : hospitals, almshouses, bureaux de bienfaisance, establishments for the support of abandoned children, and lunatic asylums. The three first are communal, and the two last are departmental institutions.

various classes
of establish-
ments.

The bureaux de bienfaisance are out-door relief boards, most of which possess an original fund invested in land or State securities. A large part of their revenue is derived from voluntary contributions and legacies, and they receive, like all the other branches of public relief, considerable subsidies. Certain definite public contributions, such as a tenth of the value of all theatre tickets, are also assured to them. Each commune is left to determine for itself the necessity of establishing such a board.

In every commune, possessing one or more public hospitals or asylums, their administration is confided to an unpaid commission, consisting of five members, generally notables of the place, under the presidency of the mayor ; while the internal management of each establishment devolves chiefly upon the members of the female charitable religious congregations, some ten thousand of whom, assisted by salaried functionaries, are in constant employment. A similar unpaid commission is entrusted with the direction of the local bureau de bienfaisance ; and inspectors, appointed by the authorities, examine every year the condition of both the hospitals and bureaux.

Administrative
commissions.

A bill, which I shall have occasion to examine in detail in another place, has recently been brought by the Government into the National Assembly (where it is now being examined), with a view to the union, under identical local commissions, of the in-door and out-door relief services. This bill does not, however, propose the amalgamation of these services, but merely their administration in each locality by the same set of persons.

This union of the administrative commissions is already in existence at Paris and Lille, and is apparently about to be instituted at Marseilles.

Although the collective importance of the various hospitals, almshouses, and asylums is at present far greater than that of the bureaux de bienfaisance, the tendency to increase in number and resources is much more striking in the case of the latter than in that of the former. The following figures will show their relative importance :

	Francs
Revenue of 1,557 hospitals and asylums	
in 1864	61,973,949
Subsidies	14,200,845
Total	<hr/> 76,174,794
	or £3,046,991

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	Revenue of 13,278 bureaux de bien-	Francs
faisance for 1866	-	21,809,451
Subsidies	-	3,973,558
		<hr/>
Total	-	25,783,009
		or £ 1,031,320
		<hr/>

These—the hospitals, asylums, &c., and the bureaux de bienfaisance—are the two great branches of the organization for the public relief of the poor. The former include, however, in addition to the sick and the aged, two classes of inmates, each of which forms the subject of a distinct service at the expense of the department, the abandoned children and the lunatics. They are supported either in special departmental asylums, or in separate wards attached to the ordinary almshouses. In the case of the children, however, by far the greater number are now either entrusted to peasant families in the country, or pecuniarily relieved at their own homes.

**Country medical service ;
dépôts de mendicité.**

Besides these, there are two other institutions of considerable importance: a gratuitous country medical service, and the dépôt de mendicité. Each of these subjects I shall examine in detail, only remarking here that the dépôt de mendicité, which bears some resemblance to the English workhouse, is a departmental establishment, intended rather for the punishment of the offence of begging than for the relief of the poor.

Bureaux de charité.

In the communes where no bureau de bienfaisance exists, and where sufficient funds cannot be raised to justify the foundation of one, what is called a bureau de charité is frequently established. This consists of a commission of five unpaid members, including the mayor and priest of the commune, who sit *ex officio*. The bureau de charité differs from the bureau de bienfaisance by possessing no invested property. Its funds are derived exclusively from collections and voluntary offerings. Its mode of proceeding is in all respects similar to that of the bureau de bienfaisance, and being founded by the authorities, it enjoys the same semi-official character. In order to avoid all unnecessary administrative expenditure, no salaried functionaries of any kind are employed. By putting aside a portion of their receipts in seasons of abundance, these commissions frequently succeed in collecting a sum sufficient to warrant the conversion of the bureau de charité into a bureau de bienfaisance; and the latter establishment has often no other origin. Bureaux de charité are to be found in a great number of departments, no less than 274 being incidentally returned for the department of the Cher in the latest statistics collected by the Ministry of the Interior on the subject of out-door relief.

Difficulty of obtaining statistics.

The various branches of in-door and out-door relief, though all concentrated at the Ministry of the Interior for administration and statistical purposes, do not present the same degree of uniformity which is to be observed in most other French institutions. Statistics on the subject are collected somewhat irregularly, and the

present moment is not favourable for obtaining them. The destruction by fire; moreover, of the offices of the "Assistance Publique" during the late insurrection has thrown the administration into some confusion. The statistics I shall give have been collected from many different sources, and not unfrequently apply to different years between 1860 and 1870; but I believe that, taken collectively, they will be found fairly to represent the condition of France, as regards the public provision for the poor, immediately before the outbreak of the late war.

Before proceeding, however, to give statistics for the whole of France, I shall endeavour to describe the organization of public relief in the capital, which deserves a separate notice. Paris forms almost a state of itself, and a description of its institutions will give a general idea of the working of the French system.

The direction of the whole public organization for the relief of the Parisian poor is confided to a general administration of public assistance, under a responsible director, who administers not only the hospitals and almshouses, but also the lunatic asylums, infant homes, lying-in houses, and other analogous institutions, and, through twenty bureaux de bienfaisance, the whole of the out-door relief service.

This director, whose acts are controlled by a board, is subordinate both to the Prefect of the Seine and to the Minister of the Interior.

The administration, which employs 6,838 officials (1,989 of whom are medical), has at its disposal eight general and seven special hospitals as well as three hospitals established in the provinces for the use of scrofulous children; 10 almshouses; three houses of refuge; 20 bureaux de bienfaisance, and, in connexion with these last, 57 houses of succour. It acts, besides, as guardian of all supported children and lunatics.

The annual receipts at the disposal of the Paris Relief Administration amount at present altogether to 13,204,280 francs (528,171*l.*) The following are the most important items: Annual value of actual property of general and special foundations, 3,870,858 francs; interior produce of hospitals, 238,550 francs; share in public burial grounds, 203,000 francs; share in public pawn-house, 725,000 francs; share in produce of theatre and concert tickets, 1,750,000 francs; amount of various reimbursements, sale of stores, &c., 6,366,872 francs.

The expenditure for the relief of the poor of Paris amounts to no less than 23,806,027 francs (952,241*l.*), a sum nearly double that of the receipts. The deficit, amounting to over ten millions of francs (400,000*l.*), is covered by the municipality of Paris.

The administration of public assistance prepares or stores its own bread, meat, wine, and medicines, and possesses a large central dépôt, all its establishments being on the largest scale and provided with the latest improvements. Its bakehouse produces from 40 to 50 thousand pounds of bread a day. In the dépôt are stored all the furniture, apparatus, dress, &c., required for the hospitals, as

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**Numbers in
receipt of relief.**

well as the articles served out to the bureaux de bienfaisance for out-door distribution.

During the year 1869, the total number of persons receiving in-door and out-door relief in Paris was 317,742, out of a population of 1,799,890.

For the same year the number of persons receiving out-door relief there was 111,357, or one for every 16 of the population. Although the number has been steadily increasing since 1829, the first year for which statistics exist, the proportion of persons receiving such relief, as compared with the population of the city, has been on the whole diminishing. Thus, in 1829, the persons relieved were 62,705, out of a total population of 816,486 ; that is to say, as one to rather more than 13 (13·02). In 1838 the proportion was one person relieved for every 15 of the population. In 1847, a year of scarcity, the proportion of poor increased, the figures being 73,901 for a population of 1,034,196 ; that is, as one to 14. In 1861 the total number is 90,287, a figure which is explained by the recent annexation of the suburban communes, which brought the population of Paris to 1,667,841. The proportion between the persons receiving out-door relief and the population is, therefore, for that year only as one to 18 (18·47). For 1866, there is a slight increase in the number of poor, the proportion being as one to 17 (17·12).

**Paris bureaux
de bienfaisance.**

Paris being divided into 20 municipal districts (arrondissements) each district possesses, for the out-door relief of the poor, a bureau de bienfaisance, which is established at the mairie.

Each bureau is managed by a council, consisting of the mayor as president, his adjuncts, twelve administrators, a number of stewards and ladies of charity, proportioned to the number of the poor, and a treasurer-secretary, who is the responsible representative of the central administration.

The district is divided into 12 zones, each of which is entrusted to one of the twelve administrators, who decides on the amount and kind of relief adapted to each case. The physicians and midwives of the bureau are appointed by the Prefect of the Seine. In order to be relieved the indigent person must be inscribed in the general register. The applicant is visited by the administrator, the physician, or one of the ladies of charity. A detailed report on his case is drawn up and acted upon at one of the fortnightly meetings of the council ; and the applicant, if relieved, receives a yellow or a green card, according as the relief granted is temporary or annual. Old men and women in distress are allowed five francs (4s. 2d.) a month if between the ages of 70 and 79 years, eight francs from 79 to 82 years, ten francs from 82 to 84, and twelve francs a month when over 84 years of age. Persons afflicted with blindness, paralysis, epilepsy, or cancer, receive a monthly allowance which varies between five and ten francs. An annual pension of 253 francs (10l. 2s. 3d.) for men and 195 francs (7l. 16s. 8d.) for women is granted through the bureau de bienfaisance to persons whom the almshouses cannot receive for want of room, but who

would otherwise be admitted. In 1869, 427 men and 710 women enjoyed such a pension.

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Every bureau de bienfaisance has one or more houses of succour attached to it, where the relief which it has granted is distributed. These houses, which are served by sisters of charity, are established according to local requirements, the number now existing in Paris being 57. Here the poor obtain, besides bread, soup, &c., the loan of sheets, linen, and other necessaries, and the gift of old clothes, shoes, and bath tickets. They also receive gratuitous medical advice and medicine.

The central administration receives and examines applications for relief, which may be made to it directly. In 1869, no less than 61,080 such applications were examined, only 17,855 of which were rejected. The administration employs 60 visitors, who in 1869 paid 185,400 visits.

Strictly speaking, a domicile of five years is required before an applicant can obtain relief; but this rule is very loosely adhered to, and the exigencies of the case are alone regarded.

The Paris administration has eight general hospitals, namely, the Hotel Dieu (830 beds), La Pitié (640), St. Antoine (600), Necker (450), Cochin (190), Beaujon (420), and Lariboisière (640), as well as seven special hospitals, namely, St. Louis (skin diseases, 830 beds), Midi (venereal diseases, men, 340 beds), Lourcine (venereal diseases, women, 280), the Maternité (lying-in hospital, 410), the Cliniques (surgery and lying-in, 160), the Enfants Malades (children, 700 beds, counting those of the branch hospital at Forges), and Ste. Eugenie (children, 410).

Paris hospitals,
general and
special.

The administration also maintains three small hospitals for scrofulous children in the country, namely, those of Berck-sur-Mer (Pas de Calais), and Roche Guyon (Seine-et-Oise), each with 100 beds, and the branch hospital at Forges (Seine-et-Oise) already mentioned.

The number of beds as given above for each establishment is approximative, because it varies slightly according to the necessities of the service, supplementary beds being in use.

The total number of beds in the Paris hospitals, including both general and special establishments, as well as the three small hospitals just mentioned, is stated in the most recent return at 7,820, of which about three-fifths belong to the general hospitals.

About 100,000 patients are annually treated in all the Paris hospitals. As the whole population of the department of the Seine, that is, the inhabitants of the neighbourhood as well as those of the city itself are admitted, the patients amount to 4·73 per cent. of the general population (2,112,293).

The almshouses and asylums of Paris are 13 in number, namely, Bicêtre (old men and male lunatics, 2,730 beds), the Salpêtrière (old women and female lunatics, 4,450), Asylum for Male Incurables (470), Asylum for Female Incurables (706), Abandoned Children and Orphans (550), Family Asylum (*Ménages*, 1,383), La Rochefoucauld (250), Ste. Pépine (300), St. Michel (8), La Reconnaissance (260), Devillas (35), Chardon Lagache.

Paris alm-
houses and
asylums.

FRANCE.

Absolute total of beds, 11,260.

Upwards of 13,000 persons are supported in these establishments, the proportion of lunatics to the aged and incurable being about one-third.

Before 1860 most of the vacant places in the almshouses were given to the bureaux de bienfaisance, who distributed them by favour. Now, the places are granted on application, and after an examination of the case by a commission presided over by a member of the council of public relief, and composed of a mayor or a mayor's adjunct, two administrators of bureaux de bienfaisance, and three superior officials of the central administration. The places are given away in the strict order of the necessity of the respective applicants, whose age, infirmities, penury, and friendless condition are alone regarded. "Any infirm person "without resources," says a recent report on the subject, "reported "as such by a commissary of police, by a neighbour, or even by "the porter of the house in which he lives, is sure to find in a "few days the asylum due to his sufferings and his destitution."

I have placed among the asylums of Paris the establishment for the support of abandoned children and orphans, which is furnished with about 550 beds. The central administration also keeps in the country upwards of 12,000 children under 12 years of age, who are entrusted to the care of nurses in different parts of France, within certain districts entrusted to inspectors. Nearly 9,000 more, between the ages of 12 and 21 years, are apprenticed to respectable farmers, and remain under the guardianship of the Paris administration.

The internal expenses connected with the support of the abandoned children, amounting to upwards of 1,000,000 francs (40,000*l.*), are defrayed by the administration.

The external expenses, amounting to about two millions and a half of francs (100,000*l.*), are defrayed by the department of the Seine.

This division of expenditure has given rise to a conflict between the departmental authorities and the Paris administration, the former thinking themselves entitled to take into their own hands the management of the service of which they incur the expense. The Prefect of the Seine appears, however, to have brought about an arrangement by which the administration enters into a free contract with the department for the exclusive management of the external service.

The wet nurses to whom the infants are confided receive during the first year from 12 to 15 francs (10*s.* to 12*s.* 6*d.*) a month, and during the second year from 10 to 12 francs (8*s.* 4*d.* to 10*s.*) a month.

Paris dépôts de mendicité.

The department of the Seine (Paris) possesses two *dépôts de mendicité* at St. Denis and Villers-Cotteret, near Paris. I have already explained the nature of these establishments, which are far from having the national importance of English workhouses. Before a pauper can be admitted, he must have undergone a sentence of three days imprisonment for begging. Statistics on the

subject of the dépôts de mendicité throughout France are being collected, and will find a place in the second part of this Report.

It is, of course, at present impossible to say how far the institutions which I have described have been able to bear the strain of the great calamities which have lately befallen this city. Some time must necessarily elapse before the increase of pauperism due to the two sieges of Paris and the stagnation of trade can be precisely determined; but the extension of mendicity throughout the capital is unmistakable. The ordinary resources of the bureaux de bienfaisance are, indeed, admitted to have failed in meeting the heavy demands made upon them, and these establishments are now making pressing appeals to public charity, and organizing extraordinary collections.

Having described the organization for the relief of the poor of Paris, I propose to examine the provision existing for the rest of France. Provision
the poor in the
provinces.

Little more than one-third of the whole number of communes in France,* amounting to 37,000, are as yet provided with bureaux de bienfaisance. Until 1867, the authorization of the Government was requisite before a commune could be provided with one; but, by a law passed in that year, the approval of the prefect was declared to be sufficient, a measure tending much to facilitate and encourage the institution of these humble but excellent establishments.

No less than the hospitals and asylums, the bureaux de bienfaisance owe their origin to private charity; and the semi-official character thus attaching to them has never been affected by subsequent legislation. The considerable funds which many of them possess have come to them day by day from spontaneous benevolence, or are a result of a conversion of ancient landed foundations. The fact that the bureau de bienfaisance is in numerous communes managed by members of the municipal council, has been the cause of a common but mistaken belief that they are regular municipal establishments, whereas in reality they are, or ought to be, independent. I have already mentioned the large annual subsidies which most of them receive from the municipal budget; but these subsidies by no means possess a necessary character, and in the general total of bureaux receipts, amounting to 21,809,451 francs, they figure for no more than 3,973,558 francs, or about one-fifth. The municipalities are left at perfect liberty to grant or withhold subsidies, according to circumstances; but they, of course, enjoy the same power of inspection and control which is exercised by the Government.

The character of these establishments is at present purely secular. They are frequently in connexion with the priest of the locality; but the latter is not (as he was between the years 1821

* It is scarcely necessary to state that the statistics given in this Report, having been mostly returned before the late war, include, where the whole of France is in question, the departments recently ceded to Germany. Wherever I am able to do so, however, I give the means of deducting on their account.

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and 1831) necessarily on the administrative commission. This commission consists at present of the mayor of the commune as president, and of five persons named by the prefect of the department. One of the administrators goes out by lot every year.

The bill now before the Assembly, to which allusion has already been made, proposes that in each commune the hospital and bureau commissions should be united, and that in the new commission the communal and departmental authorities, as well as the medical, legal and clerical professions, and the working class should be represented, while the mayor should, as heretofore, be president.

The business of the bureaux de bienfaisance consists in the distribution of all the funds derived from their foundation or placed at their disposal by the authorities or by private individuals. All persons out of work, or burdened with an over large family, as well as the sick and the aged, are considered fit subjects for relief; but the relief is by no means obligatory. Separate registers are kept for those who are annually, and for those who are only temporarily relieved.

Budget of bureaux.

The bureaux de bienfaisance must draw up every year a draft budget, which is submitted to the prefect of the department; and they are prohibited from spending any moneys for an object not immediately related to their charitable mission. Thus they are not at liberty to spend money in placing a person in an almshouse.

Relief afforded by them.

The assistance they afford consists chiefly in bread, soup, clothes, fuel, and medicines. It may also consist in the obtaining of work, in the establishment of charitable workshops, and in the payment of wet nurses.

When the bureaux have sufficient funds, they may apprentice the children of indigent persons to respectable masters; they may also obtain for the poor gratuitous passports, exemption from registration fees, from taxes, and from the fees levied on birth and marriage certificates, and pay funeral expenses.

In the affording of relief, the bureaux are limited to their own district, and the person relieved must have been domiciled in it for not less than one year.

I have said that many of the bureaux de bienfaisance owe their origin to private charity. In the revolution, a great number of the charitable foundations, most of which were of a clerical character, were abolished, and their funds applied to other purposes. In order to repair the effects of this confiscation, it was provided by a decree of 1807, that the property which had formerly belonged to charitable establishments, and had been intended for the support of the poor, should not be held to have lapsed to the State by the abolition of the corporations that had managed it, but should be placed at the disposal of the bureau de bienfaisance of the district, and be employed in conformity with its original object.

Receipts of bureaux.

The receipts of the bureaux de bienfaisance are derived from various sources; lands, houses, woods, mortgages, State and communal bonds. Considerable sums are also obtained from gifts and legacies, from a tax of 10 per cent. on all tickets sold at theatres

and other places of public entertainment, from certain fines and confiscations, from numerous collections made in churches and from house to house, from poor-boxes, from a share of one-third on the price paid for graves, and, finally, from the customary municipal subsidy, which in the department of the Seine (Paris) amounts to more than half of the whole receipts, whilst in the provinces it scarcely exceeds one-sixth.

In 1833, the number of communes which had a bureau de bienfaisance was 6,275. Twenty years later, the number had increased to 11,409. In 1861, there existed only 11,229; or, with the addition of the recently annexed departments (Savoy, Upper Savoy, and Maritime Alps) 11,578. In 1866, the date of the latest existing statistics, the number had increased to 13,298.

The following table, kindly communicated to me by the Ministry of the Interior, gives the number of bureaux de bienfaisance for each department, as well as the amount of their ordinary receipts and the number of persons relieved for the year 1866. It is the summary of answers to a telegraphic circular sent in 1868 by the Minister of the Interior to all the prefects:—

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Number of
bureaux and of
poor relieved.

Department.	Number of Bureaux in 1866.	Total of Ordinary Receipts.	Number of Poor relieved.	Population of the Department.	Observations.	Ministère de l'Intérieur, Paris, 1er Juin 1868.
Ain	126	Fr. C. 55,241 14	8,064	371,643		
Aisne	380	444,779 0	18,300	565,025		
Allier	14	27,404 83	2,925	376,164		
Alpes (Bas)	105	39,785 98	1,896	148,000		
Alpes (Hauts)	50	18,983 0	5,339	123,117		
Alpes (Montagnes)	77	127,180 80	11,125	196,818		
Ardeche	209	59,970 0	1,187	387,174		
Ardennes	139	95,516 43	2,927	326,864		
Ariége	153	78,706 58	4,823	250,456		
Aube	70	117,883 0	8,911	261,961		
Aude	263	146,331 28	11,373	288,638		
Aveyron	151	75,000 0	4,900	400,070		
Bouches du Rhône	59	360,404 14	32,596	547,903		
Calvados	670	428,742 04	20,116	474,909		
Cantal*	134	25,451 0	3,602	287,994	* Only 38 kept regular accounts.	
Charente	87	39,694 02	1,804	378,218		
Charente Inférieure	46	25,318 0	3,838	479,539		
Cher†	17	61,900 0	2,024	336,613	+ 274 communes have a bureau de charité.	
Commissions de Charité.	274	112,900 0	16,000			
Corrèze	148	23,354 02	2,140	310,843		
Corse	6	5,700 0	1,750	289,861		
Côte d'Or	98	116,766 10	11,008	382,762		
Côtes du Nord	32	57,124 41	19,500	641,210		

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Department.	Number of Bureaux in 1866.	Total of Ordinary Receipts.	Number of Poor relieved.	Popula- tion of the Depart- ment.	Observations.
Creuse*	24	Fr. c. 16,737 0	1,870	274,057	
Dordogne	117	55,251 0	4,522	502,873	
Doubs	169	96,156 0	10,120	296,072	
Drôme	177	63,800 90	9,369	324,231	
Eure	137	314,476 73	4,873	304,467	
Eure et Loir	98	131,890 56	5,423	290,753	
Finistère	20	111,817 73	16,800	602,465	
Gard	208	153,022 78	21,016	429,747	
Garonne (Haute)	302	365,815 35	21,253	403,777	
Gers	230	104,699 18	5,670	295,692	
Gironde	91	†290,083 0	15,312	701,855	† Extraordinary receipts 187,264 frs.
Hérault	126	217,900 39	19,051	427,345	
Ile et Vilaine	168	268,625 0	25,785	592,609	
Indre	37	54,416 33	3,130	277,860	
Indre et Loire	98	123,159 53	3,428	325,196	
Isère	238	134,545 60	10,045	581,386	
Jura	154	91,094 19	2,293	296,477	
Landes	113	32,291 35	2,171	306,693	
Loir et Cher	169	145,730 24	6,031	275,757	
Loire	46	81,677 0	6,857	537,106	
Loire (Haute)	33	28,304 90	3,834	312,661	
Loire Inférieure	88	156,548 63	16,172	598,598	
Loiret	92	105,883 70	13,914	357,110	
Lot	103	52,997 06	16,000	288,919	
Lot et Garonne	165	113,963 0	4,442	327,963	
Lozère	175	50,068 73	4,300	137,263	
Maine et Loire	141	186,747 83	15,314	532,535	
Manche	108	384,556 0	24,453	573,909	
Marne	158	262,600 0	8,750	300,969	
Marne (Haute)	82	59,712 0	4,500	239,096	
Mayenne	274	281,677 0	20,500	367,855	
Meurthe	183	179,550 08	15,206	428,387	
Moselle	98	99,896 21	5,074	301,653	
Morbihan	21	46,655 95	8,246	501,064	
Nord	5646	Ord. R. 3,551,365 89 Ext. R. 3,985,847 50 Expen. 3,661,434 68	232,039	1,302,041	‡ 4,891 of whom were relieved at Mets
Nièvre	52	21,500 0	6,906	342,773	
Oise	306	259,036 96	7,517	401,274	§ Out of 663 com- munes.



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Department.	Number of Bureaux in 1866.	Total of Ordinary Receipts.	Number of Poor relieved.	Popula- tion of the Depart- ment.	Observations.
Orne - - -	117	Fr. c. 118,984 99	6,453	414,618	
Pas de Calais - -	*903	770,000 0	38,500	749,777	* One for each commune; 440 bureaux have no revenue.
Puy de Dôme - -	130	14,791 0	10,367	571,990	
Pyrenées (Bas) - -	387	214,365 87	17,988	435,486	
Pyrenées (Hantes) - -	95	58,344 0	3,675	240,353	
Pyrenées (Orientales) - -	11	38,890 83	2,819	189,490	
Rhin (Bas) - -	25	116,890 87	†8,715	588,970	+ Exclusive of 6,713 children relieved at Strasburg.
Rhin (Haut) - -	46	61,902 40	3,507	530,285	
Rhône - - -	151	586,717 51	73,880	678,648	
Saône (Haute) - -	111	77,924 40	2,380	317,706	
Saône et Loire - -	201	186,009 0	7,224	600,006	
Sarthe - - -	180	186,295 0	15,284	463,619	
Savoie - - -	145	98,880 0	7,100	271,063	
Savoie (Haute) - -	156	164,047 57	9,125	273,768	
Seine Inférieure - -	238	610,586 0	26,469	533,727	
Seine et Marne - -	201	155,042 80	5,581	792,768	
Seine et Oise - -	389	584,894 70	12,949	354,400	
Sèvres (Deux) - -	28	49,130 27	4,554	335,155	
Somme - - -	400	763,890 30	85,115	573,640	
Tarn - - -	113	162,661 0	4,650	355,513	
Tarn et Garonne - -	93	98,056 0	5,915	228,969	
Var - - -	94	‡137,167 22	10,807	308,550	‡ Including 8,009 casuals.
Vaucluse - - -	62	§80,000 0	10,441	286,091	§ Approximate; for 1867 the total is 88,157.
Vendée - - -	76	98,849 42	8,107	404,743	
Vienne - - -	34	38,598 09	3,958	324,527	
Vienne (Haute) - -	24	103,191 35	14,391	326,087	
Vosges - - -	223	121,115 08	6,007	418,998	
Yonne - - -	153	118,105 45	4,517	373,589	
Total for the Provinces.	18,278	16,148,964 0	1,197,963	35,916,148	
Seine (Paris) - -	20	3,468,000 0	106,119	2,150,916	40,644 families.
Total for France	18,298	19,606,964 0	1,303,061	38,067,064	

It will be observed that the above table, the only source of recent information procurable, does not enter into details. In order to obtain more minute information we must go back to a previous year. And firstly, as regards the receipts of the bureaux in 1861.

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—	Seine (Paris).	Other Depart- ments.	Whole of France.
ORDINARY RECEIPTS.			
Produce of lands and houses -	7,689	3,090,495	3,098,184
Produce of rentes - - -	53,843	4,713,967	4,767,810
Subsidy of commune - - -	2,738,416	3,247,250	5,985,666
Theatre per-cent-age - - -	18,751	602,071	620,822
Other Receipts - - -	75,686	1,196,142	1,271,828
Total - - -	3,894,385	13,849,985	15,744,510
	or	£ 115,775	£ 630,772
EXTRAORDINARY RECEIPTS.			
Collections and subscriptions -	883,211	1,631,470	2,513,681
Gifts and legacies - - -	459,226	1,468,681	1,953,907
Extraordinary subsidies - - -	120,061	726,308	846,359
Sale of lands and rentes - - -	580	1,067,108	1,067,688
Other receipts - - -	14,761	751,920	766,681
Total - - -	1,476,889	5,860,487	7,127,316
	or	£ 59,073	£ 226,419
General Total - - -	4,371,214	18,510,412	22,881,626
	or	£ 174,848	£ 740,416
			£ 915,865

The chief sources of revenue of the bureaux de bienfaisance are therefore the subsidies, the *rentes*, and the produce of land and house property. The amount annually contributed by private charity, that is to say, the produce of collections, gifts, and legacies, forms between 11 and 12 per cent. of the total of receipts.

Actual amount spent in relief.

If we now turn to the expenditure, we shall find that the proportion between the expenses of administration and the amount actually expended on relief is as follows, investments not included :—

—	Seine (Paris).	Other Depart- ments.	[France.
Expenses - - - -	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.
Belief given - - - -	83·87	80·84	81·39
		100·00	

The following schedule shows the amount spent on each of these two accounts for the same year (1861):—

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—	Seine (Paris).	Other Departments.	Whole of France.
	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.
Expenses of administration	746,397	3,008,136	3,757,533
Relief given	3,889,540	12,540,206	16,429,746
Investments	41,273	3,794,651	3,885,924
Totals	4,679,200	19,343,993	24,023,196
or	£ 187,168	£ 778,759	£ 960,927

Thus, for the year in question, we find that the expenditure of the bureaux de bienfaisance (960,927l.) considerably exceeds their revenue (915,265l.) This deficit is explained by the fact that a large surplus (29 per cent.) remained over from the previous year.

The sum actually spent on relief (16,429,746 fr. or 657,189l.) may be proportionally divided as follows:—

Food	-	-	-	-	-	50·70
Clothes	-	-	-	-	-	5·66
Fuel	-	-	-	-	-	3·77
Medicine and medical attendance	-	-	-	-	-	6·27
Other sorts of relief	-	-	-	-	-	12·06
Pecuniary assistance	-	-	-	-	-	21·54
						100·00

The number of persons relieved by the bureaux has generally increased since 1833 (the earliest date for which we have statistics), both absolutely and with respect to the growth of population. Thus from 1833 to 1866:—

Periods.		Annual average of Persons relieved.	Number of Poor for every 100 inhabitants.
1833-1837	-	751,311	2·25
1838-1842	-	813,210	2·39
1843-1847	-	925,274	2·64
1848-1852	-	982,516	2·78
1853	-	1,022,996	
1854	-	1,161,937	
1855	-	1,226,865	
1856	-	1,221,428	
1857	-	1,137,750	3·16
1858	-	1,105,826	
1859	-	1,074,388	
1860	-	1,213,684	
1866	-	1,303,081	3·42

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It should not be concluded from this progressive augmentation that pauperism has increased in the same proportion. In reality, owing to the increase in the number of bureaux, and to the development of their resources, a great number of poor, who before were supported by private charity, have come to be publicly relieved.

Value of relief afforded.

Nor has the increase in the number of persons assisted diminished the value of the relief given from 1832-1861. This will be seen from the following figures:—

Period.	Average annual value of relief per head.				
	fr.	c.	s.	d.	
1832-1837	-	-	9	44	or
1838-1842	-	-	10	54	or
1843-1847	-	-	12	03	or
1848-1852	-	-	11	56	or
1853-1860	-	-	12	39	or
1861	-	-	14	17	or
	11	9			

These figures, it should be remembered, apply to the whole of France. I am unable to bring them down to a more recent period, the statistics for 1866 (the latest) affording no means of doing so.

The annual value of out-door relief per head has, of course, always been much higher in the capital than in the provinces. Thus in 1861 it amounted for Paris to 31fr. 91c. (1l. 5s. 10d.), and for 1869 to 23fr. 28c. (19s. 5d.)

The average value of the relief afforded also differs exceedingly in the various departments, rising in some to nearly 60fr. (2l. 8s.), and falling in others as low as 1fr. 50c. (1s. 3d.). In order to examine these variations more closely, we must again go back as far as 1860.

Department.	Annual Value of Relief per Head.	Department.	Annual Value of Relief per Head.	Department.	Annual Value of Relief per Head.
Aube - - -	Fr. c. 56 84	Seine - - -	Fr. c. 24 44	Vienne - - -	Fr. c. 17 66
Nièvre - - -	55 54	Ardennes - - -	24 03	Orne - - -	17 24
Charente Inférieure	31 15	Hérault - - -	22 73	Saône et Loire - - -	17 09
Seine et Marne -	30 46	Haute Saône - - -	22 52	Lozère - - -	16 76
Seine Inférieure -	30 34	Var - - -	23 51	Aisne - - -	16 73
Indre et Loire -	23 34	Marne - - -	20 94	Indre - - -	16 72
Gard - - -	25 83	Oise - - -	20 94	Bas Rhin - - -	16 27
Yonne - - -	25 81	Eure et Loir - - -	20 04	Aude - - -	16 13
Seine et Oise -	25 77	Loir et Cher - - -	19 42	Vosges - - -	15 85
Lot et Garonne -	25 14	Jura - - -	18 83	Pas de Calais - - -	15 73
Cher - - -	25 07	Haut Rhin - - -	18 05	Somme - - -	15 56
Gers - - -	24 48	Hautes Pyrénées -	17 91	Deux Sèvres - - -	15

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Department.	Annual Value of Relief per Head.	Department.	Annual Value of Relief per Head.	Department.	Annual Value of Relief per Head.
Moselle - - -	Fr. c. 15 22	Bouches du Rhône - - -	9 80	Mayenne - - -	Fr. c. 6 50
Eure - - -	15 19	Doubs - - -	9 80	Manche - - -	6 48
Tarn - - -	13 96	Charente - - -	9 64	Drome - - -	6 0
Calvados - - -	13 54	Puy de Dôme - - -	9 50	Meurthe - - -	5 92
Creuse - - -	13 13	Tarn et Gironne - - -	9 47	Ardiche - - -	5 68
Gironde - - -	12 82	Haute Vienne - - -	9 28	Corrèze - - -	5 61
Haute Loire - - -	11 46	Basses Pyrénées - - -	9 03	Aveyron - - -	5 58
Ain - - -	11 25	Morbihan - - -	8 86	Hautes Alpes - - -	5 38
Loire - - -	11 22	Dordogne - - -	8 71	Lot - - -	5 23
Corse - - -	10 92	Marne et Loire - - -	8 20	Vaucluse - - -	4 80
Basses Alpes - - -	10 86	Ariège - - -	8 15	Côtes du Nord - - -	4 85
Rhône - - -	10 60	Haute Garonne - - -	8 11	Haute Marne - - -	4 38
Allier - - -	10 56	Isère - - -	7 68	Cantal - - -	4 18
Loire Inférieure - - -	10 46	Loiret - - -	7 67	Ile et Vilaine - - -	4 08
Landes - - -	10 16	Meuse - - -	7 59	Pyrénées Orientales - - -	2 67
Vendée - - -	9 92	Finistère - - -	7 26	Sarthe - - -	1 51
Côte d'Or - - -	9 82	Nord - - -	7 25	Average - - -	11 55

The departments in which the average value of the relief afforded is highest are generally those in which the number of recipients is smallest.

In the country districts the want of bureaux de bienfaisance and of hospitals is supplied by a gratuitous medical service, which is, however, as yet organized in only half of the departments of France. This service is supported partly by the communes, partly by the departments, and it receives contributions from the neighbouring bureaux de bienfaisance. The State also grants in the case of some departments a subsidy, which varies from 500 to 5,000 francs (20*l.* to 200*l.*) The physicians employed are appointed by the prefect, and receive a small annual remuneration; and the indigent peasants, in order to be relieved, must be inscribed on a list drawn up by the communal authorities.

The following are the departments in which the service is at present organized:—Aisne, Allier, Basses-Alpes, Hautes-Alpes, Alpes-Maritimes, Ardennes, Ariège, Aude, Aveyron, Bouches-du-Rhône, Cantal, Cher, Corse, Doubs, Drôme, Haute Garonne, Gers, Gironde, Hérault, Ile-et-Vilaine, Indre, Indre-et-Loire, Isère, Jura, Landes, Loire, Loiret, Lot, Maine-et-Loire, Marne, Meurthe, Moselle, Meuse, Nièvre, Oise, Pas-de-Calais, Basses Pyrénées, Haute Saône, Saône-et-Loire, Sarthe, Haute Savoie, Seine-et-Dôle, Deux Sèvres, Somme, Tarn, Tarn-et-Garonne, Vaucluse.

These 47 departments contain altogether 18,799 communes,

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14,505 of which contribute to the gratuitous medical service, and employ 3,730 physicians; so that each physician has an average district of 3·8 communes to attend to.

For the year 1870 the number of persons inscribed on the lists of the country medical service was 678,317. Of these, 292,213 received professional assistance; 399,648 visits were paid by the physicians; 253,152 consultations were held; and 186,341 vaccinations performed.

The 47 departments interested in the service contributed altogether 342,612 francs (13,704*l.* odd) to the general receipts; the communes and bureaux de bienfaisance furnishing 760,490 francs (30,419*l.*) The State subsidies, granted to only 15 of the departments, amounted to 29,000 francs (1,160*l.*) ; while 37,947 francs (1,617*l.*) was derived from voluntary offerings. These various sums, amounting (for the year 1870) to 1,170,049 francs (46,802*l.*) constitute the revenue of the service. The expenses for the same year were 1,130,896 francs (45,235*l.* odd). Of this sum, 610,133 francs (24,405*l.*) were expended in physicians' salaries and fees, thus bringing the average remuneration of each physician to the very small amount of 164 francs (6*l.* 10*s.*) a year. 461,305 francs (18,452*l.*) were spent in the purchase of medicines, food, &c., and 26,888 francs (1,072*l.*) in the purchase of furniture.

A bill for appointing a committee to inquire into the provision for the poor in country districts is now passing through the National Assembly (February 1872).

General establishments maintained directly by the State.

I have mentioned the general charitable institutions which are directly kept up by the State, and which are for the most part intended for the use of persons belonging to all parts of the country. It may be as well to review them before entering upon an examination of the ordinary communal and departmental hospitals and asylums.

The general institutions are : —

1. The Asylum of the Quinze-Vingts at Paris, founded by Saint Louis in 1260 for the use of the blind. It has 300 inmates, and grants annual pensions of 100, 150, and 200 francs (4*l.*, 6*l.*, and 8*l.*) to 1,200 out-door patients. In-door patients must be 40, and out-door patients at least 21 years of age.

2. The Deaf and Dumb Institution supports 140 children gratuitously ; but it also takes charge of a number of patients who pay an annual sum of 1,000 francs (40*l.*) The nominations are in the gift of the Minister of the Interior.

3. The Lunatic Asylum of Charenton, near Paris, founded in 1642 and containing 580 beds, 82 of the places are gratuitous, and are in the gift of the Government. The others are divided into three classes, paying respectively 1,500, 1,200, and 900 francs a year (60*l.*, 48*l.*, and 36*l.*)

4. The Asylum of Vincennes (also near Paris) containing 522 beds for sick and wounded workmen engaged in Government works in the department of the Seine, for subscribers to a society in connexion with the asylum, and for persons working under masters who subscribe to the asylum; the former class are received

for 50 c. (5*d.*), and the latter for 75 c. (7*½d.*) a day. Lastly, convalescent patients sent by the Paris hospitals and bureaux de bienfaisance, as well as convalescent persons of all sorts, on a nomination of the Minister of the Interior, are treated in the asylum for one franc (10*d.*) a day.

5. The Asylum of the Vesinet in the neighbourhood of Paris, containing 400 beds. Its object and the conditions it requires are the same as those of the preceding establishment.

6. The Institution for the Young Blind of both Sexes. The children must be between the ages of 10 and 14 years. They remain eight years in the asylum, and are educated, while on leaving they are provided with a situation. The places, 120 in number, are in the gift of the Government; but pupils are also admitted upon the payment of a yearly sum.

7. The National Institution of Bordeaux for the use of Deaf and Dumb Girls. The State has in its gift 75 of the places. The conditions are similar to those of the Paris establishment.

Besides these establishments, the central government maintains an asylum for the use of travellers frequenting the Mont Genevre; but this scarcely comes within the scope of the present Report.

I have had occasion to state at the beginning of this Report that the internal management of each of the hospitals, almshouses, and asylums devolves chiefly upon the sisters of charity. Regular contracts are drawn up between the administrative commission entrusted with the control of the hospital or hospitals of the commune, and one of the female charitable congregations, the lady superior binding herself to furnish a certain number of sisters, who are boarded and lodged in the hospital. Their duties are limited to personal attendance upon the inmates, and to cooking, washing, and other domestic employments. The pharmaceutical department is confided in all the larger establishments to a salaried chemist; an official called the "économe" is entrusted with the stores, and a paid "receveur" settles the accounts.

Where the revenue of the establishment is 30,000 francs (1,200*l.*), or more, the receveur's accounts are audited by the Cour des Comptes in Paris (law of the 18th July 1837).

In all the larger establishments an additional functionary termed the "contrôleur" is appointed to examine the expenditure.

There is no fixed number of physicians, their appointment depending, of course, upon local necessities.

The administrative commission exercises a daily control, its members taking this duty by turn. A secretary is attached to the commission, and an unpaid council of three lawyers is appointed by the prefect to give any legal advice which the commission may require.

The municipal council controls the acceptance by the administrative commission of all gifts and legacies, as well as the transfer of property. The prefect's authorization is also required in these cases; and the budgets of every charitable establishment must be

Hospitals, alm-houses, and asylums: their management.

FRANCE.

Hospitals and
asylums,
number of.

submitted to him after having been previously approved of by the municipal council.

On the 1st of January 1869 there existed in France 415 hospitals, 291 asylums, and 851 institutions possessing both characters; in all 1,557 establishments, under the superintendence of 1,382 administrative commissions.

Of these establishments, no less than 1,224 were in existence before the year 1790. Under the First Republic 10 more were founded, 16 under the First Empire, 53 under the Restoration, 71 under Louis Philippe, 11 under the Republic of 1848, and 172 under the Second Empire.

No statistics exist enabling me to distinguish by the number of beds the accommodation afforded in hospitals proper from that which is afforded in almshouses and asylums, as in many establishments the beds are used indifferently for the sick, the aged, and the lunatic; but the total number of beds, which in 1847 was 126,142, is now 141,576.

Of these Paris boasts no less than 18,758, Lyons 4,176, Nantes 2,716, Lille 2,188, Rouen 2,073, Orleans 1,641, Marseilles 1,617, Bordeaux 1,599, Montpellier 1,581, Toulouse 1,554, Angers 1,318, Strasburg 1,295, Amiens 1,106, Grenoble 1,081, Reims 1,044, and Rennes 1,016.

I have already given comparatively recent statistics for the hospitals and asylums of Paris. In order to obtain details for the similar establishments of the whole or the rest of France, we must go back to 1864, no more recent statistics having been collected on the subject.

Number of persons relieved in hospitals and asylums.

The total number of persons relieved or supported in France for 1864 in hospitals, almshouses, and asylums was 503,690, exclusive of military and naval patients, the number being subdivided as follows:

Sick	{	Men - - 176,182	}	= 336,130.
	{	Women - - 121,371	}	
	{	Children - - 38,577	}	

Who were attended for a total number of 11,795,347 days.

Lunatics, 12,589.

Women in childbed, 16,132.

Newborn infants, 13,581.

Indigent travellers, 27,155.

Aged or incurable	{	Men - 22,792	}	= 52,781.
	{	Women - 29,989	}	

Orphan and abandoned children, 45,322.

Revenues of hospitals, asylums, &c.

Of the 1,382 commissions appointed to the management of hospitals and asylums, 86 dispose of a yearly revenue of upwards of 100,000 francs (4,000*l.*), 21 over 80,000 francs (3,200*l.*), 38 over 60,000 francs (2,400*l.*), 57 over 40,000 francs (1,600*l.*), 170 over 20,000 francs (800*l.*), 260 over 10,000 francs (400*l.*), and 750 under the last-mentioned sum.

The total revenue of all the establishments for the year 1864 was 61,973,950 fr. 80 c. (2,478,958*L.*) It will be observed that this revenue includes nearly two millions of francs (80,000*L.*), which were repaid to the hospitals by the State for relief given to military patients. I have not deducted this item from the total, because in several other totals which I shall give, I have no means of distinguishing the military from the other patients.

The subsidies of the State, of the departments, and of the communes, are also included in the ordinary revenue, as given in detail in the following table. A large sum will be noticed under the head of repayment for the expense incurred in treating certain classes of patients.

1864.	Ordinary Revenue.	Amount.	Totals by Sections.	
			Fr.	c.
Foundation.	Revenue from house property - - -	3,360,239 60		
	Revenue from woods - - -	812,960 44		
	Rent from property managed directly - -	467,985 78		
	Rent from property farmed - - -	10,417,149 21	23,029,636 92	or
	State rentes - - - -	10,647,311 65	<i>£</i> 1,161,186	
	Income derived from private persons, communes, &c.	1,168,133 57		
Accessories of the Foundation, Gifts, and Subsidies.	Interest of debts and capitals owed - -	2,146,956 67		
	Accessories of the foundation - - -	3,330,927 90		
	Assistance bestowed by the State, gifts, collections.	605,580 33	18,460,786 01	or
	Subsidies of the communes - - -	14,194,845 70	<i>£</i> 738,792	
Repayments.	Subsidies of the departments - - -	248,432 18		
	Allowance for military patients - -	1,900,276 54	9,223,454 48	or
	Allowance for civil patients, lunatics, &c. -	5,528,342 27	<i>£</i> 368,898	
	Allowance for old men and children - -	1,793,835 67		
Produce of annexed Services.	Produce of schools, asylums, girls' homes -	668,971 50		
	Allowance for persons not connected with hospital service.	363,601 71	3,584,103 96	or
	Net produce of industrial undertakings -	2,563,530 75	<i>£</i> 143,364	
	Produce of internal labour - - -	608,905 44		
Interior Produce.	Sale of medicines - - - -	382,675 63	1,067,969 43	or
	Sale of produce of gardens, farmyards, &c.	249,363 41	<i>£</i> 66,718	
	Sale of refuse and worn out articles - -	427,124 95		
	Totals - - -	61,973,950 80	61,973,950 80	
		or <i>£</i>	2,478,958	2,478,958

The following places are remarkable for the net revenues of their hospitals and asylums :—Paris, 3,327,841 francs (133,113*L.*); Lyons, 1,668,665 francs (66,746*L.*); Lille, 596,589 francs (23,863*L.*); Strasburg, 564,320 francs (22,572*L.*); Amiens, 303,066 francs

FRANCE. (12,122*l.*) ; Rouen, 277,255 francs (11,090*l.*) ; Angers, 263,810 francs (10,552*l.*) ; Reims, 262,561 francs (10,502*l.*) ; Saint Etienne, 256,344 francs (10,253*l.*) ; Valenciennes, 223,554 francs (8,942*l.*) ; Clermont-Ferrand, 220,134 francs (8,805*l.*) ; Cambrai, 219,251 francs (8,770*l.*) ; Saint Quentin, 214,770 francs (8,590*l.*) ; Arras, 212,936 francs (8,517*l.*) ; Dijon, 190,320 francs (7,612*l.*) ; Laon, 190,223 francs (7,609*l.*)

Landed property, — The total landed property of all sorts belonging to hospitals and asylums amounted in 1852 to 206,367 hectares (about 510,000 acres), by 1867 it had been reduced to 198,458 hectares (about 490,000 acres) ; the sum obtained by this reduction having been chiefly employed in the extension of buildings. Under the late Imperial *régime* the Executive Government was accused of exerting an undue pressure upon the great charitable foundations, especially in obtaining from them a conversion of their landed property into State rentes. The Government plea was that the landed property in question bore a very low rate of interest (2 or 2½ per cent. and even less), whereas the same property if sold and converted into stock would bear a much higher one. One of the motives of the Imperial Government would certainly appear to have been the facilitating of its architectural projects. Be this as it may, the means they employed in order to effect their object are worthy of attention, as throwing a curious light not only upon the defendant position of the administrative commissions, but upon the nature of French centralization under the Second Empire. In a circular addressed on the 15th of May 1858 to all the prefects, the Minister of the Interior uses the following words :—

“ I invite you, therefore, Monsieur le Préfet, to use all your influence and, if need be, your authority, to induce the administrative commissions to vote the alienation. If any commissions should resist without justifying their opposition, you will take measures to overcome their refusal. You will not hesitate to dissolve any commission whose prejudices or inertness should place you in the alternative of dissolving it, or permitting the continuation of a bad administration of the property. I have resolved to grant no subsidies to the charitable establishments which, possessing landed property, should neglect so natural a means of increasing their ordinary revenue. I rely, M. le Préfet, upon your sustained efforts to accomplish this conversion of the landed property of the ‘ Assistance Publique.’ Your share in the work will be submitted to the Emperor, and I know that His Majesty will notice with satisfaction those amongst the prefects who shall have contributed most to the success of a measure tending to the more effective relief of the poor.”

No reliable statistics exist, as far I know, showing the value of the non-landed capital of the hospitals and asylums. I, therefore, proceed at once to examine their ordinary expenditure, which amounts, as will be seen from the following table, to upwards of 57 millions of francs (2,280,000*l.*)

1864.	Ordinary Expenditure.	Amount.	Totals by Sections.		FRANCE. Expenditure of hospitals and asylums.
			Fr.	c.	
Expenses belonging to the Foundation ; Expenses of Administration.	Contributions and taxes on mortmain -	992,737 88			
	Repairs on property - - - -	626,993 18			
	Expenses of management of property -	406,794 66			
	Annuities and pensions, religious foundations.	906,666 15			3,206,251 29 or £ 128,830
	Interest of loans and of capital owed -	151,833 79			
	Capitalization of revenue in State rentes -	120,326 63			
	Swaddling clothes, &c.	1,342,540 75			
	Repayment of internal expenses of children relieved in other hospitals.	22,884 65			
	Board and lodging of infirm children, or children apprenticed.	223,706 84			
	Pensions of old men and women - -	175,541 06			10,024,486 84 or £ 400,979
Expenses not connected with Hospital or Asylum Service.	Board and lodging of children of poor persons confided to be nursed or apprenticed.	470,919 95			
	Out-door relief - - - -	4,961,211 59			
	Expenses of schools, day-homes, &c. -	810,364 86			
	Expenses of persons not connected with the hospital or asylum service ; rations.	2,717,310 12			
	Expenses of hospital and asylum, personnel (salaries, wages, &c.)	7,242,128 78			
Expenses of Hospital and Asylum Service proper.	Repair of buildings - - - -	1,880,971 03			44,648,674 81 or £ 1,786,947
	General consumption - - - -	33,453,846 76			
	Purchase of medicines, surgical instruments, &c.	3,071,923 34			
	Total - - - -	57,861,414 94			57,861,414 94
		or £	3,515,256		2,515,256

* The considerable item amounting to 4 millions of francs (160,000L) for out-door relief will be noticed.

Another item, the amount for the capitalization of rentes, needs a word of explanation. A certain amount of revenue is put aside every year to increase the capital invested in the funds, with a view to counterbalancing the diminution in the value of money.

If we now proceed to contrast the revenue and the expenditure of these establishments we shall find that out of a total revenue of nearly 62 millions of francs (2,480,000L) the amount actually spent on hospital and asylum service proper barely reaches the sum of 43 millions (1,720,000L); thus,—

		Francs	c.
Gross revenue	- - - -	61,973,950	80
Hospital and asylum service proper	-	44,648,674	81
Deduct proceeds of sale of refuse, worn out stock, &c.	- - - -	1,667,969	43
Amount actually spent on sick and aged	- - - -	42,980,705	38

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For this sum 553,060 persons (including 49,376 soldiers and sailors) were relieved in hospitals, asylums, and almshouses in 1864 for a total number of 35,912,967 days; the number of deaths (also including the soldiers and sailors) being 44,575, divided as follows:—

Number of deaths.	Military patients (soldiers and sailors)	-	1,185
Sick	{ male	-	16,999
	{ female	-	13,238
Women in childbed	-	-	816
Newborn infants	-	-	1,546
Syphilitic women	-	-	62
Casuals (<i>voyageurs indigents</i>)	-	-	152
Lunatics	-	-	1,133
Old and incurable	{ males	-	3,106
	{ females	-	3,882
Children of poor families	{ boys	-	180
	{ girls	-	205
Children supported within the hospitals	{ infants	-	1,015
	{ boys	-	576
	{ girls	-	480
	Total	-	44,575

The following table shows the proportionate mortality among the various classes of persons whose connexion with the hospitals proper came to an end in 1864, whether by cure, death, or departure, as well as the average duration of such connexion:—

Mortality in hospitals.

	Sick.	Number of Sick whose treatment ended in 1864 by Departure or Death.	Number of Deaths.	Mortality per cent.	Total Number of Days passed in the Hospital in 1863 and 1864 by Patients whose treatment ended in 1864.	Average Duration of Treatment.
Military and Naval Patients	- - - - -	41,024	1,167	2·85	1,417,281	35
Other patients	{ Male { Patients over 15 years - 18,028 15,317 9·45 4,559,348 23					
	{ Patients under 15 years - 13,977 1,394 9·97 389,128 41					
	{ Female { Patients over 15 years - 81,260 10,453 12·84 8,879,708 35					
	{ Patients under 15 years - 12,887 1,387 10·79 568,423 44					
	{ Women in childbed - 14,794 808 5·46 300,307 20					
	{ Syphilitic women - 8,949 71 0·79 361,635 40					

The next table affords similar information with respect to the various classes of persons relieved in asylums and almshouses.

		Number of Persons Relieved in 1854.	Number of Deaths.	Mortality per cent.	Total Number of Days passed in the Asylum or Almshouse.	Duration of Average Stay.	FRANCE.
	Casuals, Lunatics, Old and Infirm.						Mortality in asylums and almshouses.
Casuals ("indigent travellers admitted on account of fatigue.")		25,435	128	0·50	103,455	Days. 4	
Lunatics	Passing through and provisionally relieved in the asylums.	{ male - - 773 female - - 528	{ 27 16	{ 3·50 3·23	{ 14,760 14,290	{ 19 27	
	Treated in the special wards annexed to the asylums.	{ male - - 4,357 female - - 5,546	{ 568 533	{ 13·40 9·97	{ — —	{ — —	
Old and infirm persons permanently established in the almshouses and asylums.		{ male - - 19,880 female - - 25,290	{ 2,653 3,499	{ 13·33 13·84	{ — —	{ — —	

The number of persons employed in the various hospitals, asylums, and almshouses amounts to 20,763; that is to say, 2,348 physicians and surgeons, 55 chemists, 425 in-door students, 55 midwives, licensed to practise as such (*maîtresses sage femmes*), 8,854 members of the charitable religious congregations (sisters of charity), and 9,026 male and female assistants.

Of the 2,348 physicians and surgeons, 291 perform their duties gratis, 1,764 receive a yearly stipend which varies between 100 and 500 francs (4*l.*—20*l.*), 184 receive a stipend varying between 600 and 1,000 francs (24*l.*—40*l.*), and 109 receive one of from 1,000 to 1,500 francs (40*l.*—60*l.*)

By the law of the 7th August 1851, when a poor person falls ill in any commune, no condition of domicile can be required for his admission to the proper hospital existing in that commune. On the other hand, the sick or incurable paupers belonging to communes not possessing a suitable establishment, such as a hospital or almshouse, may be admitted to those hospitals and asylums of the same department, which the departmental council may select, on the proposal of the prefect, and be relieved according to a tariff determined by the prefect in conjunction with the hospital commission. The communes, desirous of availing themselves of this arrangement, must pay for the relief thus afforded to their sick or incurable poor; but where the communal resources are unequal to the expense, a part may be paid out of the funds of the department. Where the revenues of a hospital or almshouse admit of it, the administrative commissions are authorised to afford vacant beds to the sick or incurable poor of other communes, without requiring from such communes the stipulated price.

Great difficulties being experienced in carrying the above provisions into practice, it has been proposed to establish a system of chargeability, by which the person supported, if possessed of anything, should contribute, however little, to his own relief; his

Number of persons employed.

Physicians.

Domicile.

Chargeability.

FRANCE. — direct relatives in the ascending and descending line being next chargeable, or, in their default, the commune to which the pauper belongs; while the expense would be supported by the department in cases where the commune is unable to meet it.

It must, however, be remembered that this proposal is carefully limited to the case of sick or incurable persons; the tendency of present legislation being, as I have shown elsewhere, unfavourable to the relief of the able-bodied poor.

I have already stated that lunatics and orphan and abandoned children are the subjects of an exception to the general rules relating to in-door relief; the State frankly accepting the obligation of supporting them, where the charge cannot be thrown upon a relative.

Every department is bound to have an establishment for the support of these two classes of persons respectively, or to enter into a contract for the purpose with another department. As regards the lunatics, the ordinary hospitals and almshouses are bound to receive them until they can be moved to the regular asylum.

Pauper lunatics. Pauper lunatics are, if possible, maintained at the expense of their relatives, in virtue of Articles 205 *et seq.* of the Civil Code, of course due regard being had to the circumstances of such relatives. In default of this means of defraying the expense, it is incurred by the department, without prejudice to the contribution of the commune in which the lunatic was domiciled. The proportion to be paid by the commune depends upon the amount of its revenue, the communes being divided into five classes, according as their revenue reaches 100,000 francs (4,000*L*), 50,000 francs (2,000*L*), 20,000 francs (800*L*), 3,000 francs (120*L*) or less. The proportion varies from 50 to 17 per cent. in the case of dangerous lunatics, and from 33 to 10 per cent. in the case of harmless patients.

Support of poor relatives. The support of poor relatives is provided for by several articles of the Civil Code, and has never, that I know of, formed the subject of any discussion.

It is asserted by Article 205 of the Civil Code that a child is bound to support his or her father and mother, or other relative in the direct ascending line (*i.e.* grandfather, grandmother, great-grandfather, great-grandmother, &c.) in case of need.

Article 206 extends this obligation to sons-in-law and daughters-in-law, who are bound to support their father-in-law and mother-in-law. This obligation ceases, however, when the mother-in-law has contracted a second marriage, as well as after the decease of the husband or wife through whom the affinity arose, and the decease of his or her children by the other partner.

Article 207 renders the obligation provided by the two above cited articles reciprocal.

Article 208 provides that the support in question is to be exacted only in proportion to the necessity of the person to be supported, and to the fortune of the person from whom the support is claimed.

By Article 209 the obligation may be reduced, or ceases altogether, when the person who supports can no longer afford part or the whole of the relief, or when the person supported can dispense with part or all of it.

By Article 210 if the person who supports the poor relative can show his or her inability to pay an annuity, the court may, upon examination of the case, permit him or her to support the relative at home.

By Article 211 it is left to the court to decide whether the person who offers to support a relative at home, may be exempted from the payment of an annuity.

By the 5th Article of the law of the 7th of August 1851, the almshouses or hospitals relieving a pauper belonging to another commune, on account of that commune not possessing an almshouse or hospital of its own, may, in case of need, sue the relatives mentioned in the above quoted articles of the Civil Code, for the amount of the relief afforded.

A similar right is enjoyed by the commune whose pauper is so supported.

Statistics are at present being collected by the French Government with respect to the children who are entirely or partially supported at the expense of the State. I have given up all hope of obtaining them in time to incorporate them in the present Report; they will form the subject of a supplementary paper. I must, therefore, confine myself here to a general description of the service of the "Enfants Assistés."

Children supported by the State.
("Enfants Assistés.")

The provision for the support by the State of pauper and indigent children owes its present organization to a decree of the 19th January 1811. The children so supported belong to four perfectly distinct classes, each of which may itself be divided into separate categories. The four main divisions are: infants voluntarily entrusted by their parents to the State; children abandoned by their parents or relatives; orphans; and, lastly, children supported at their parents' homes.

The first division consists, firstly, of infants brought by their parents into the asylums appointed for the purpose; secondly, of children born in lying-in hospitals and left there by their mothers.

The second division consists of children abandoned by their parents; of the children of persons undergoing a judicial sentence; of children temporarily taken into the asylums during the stay of their parents in hospitals.

The third division needs no explanation.

The fourth consists of the children of unmarried women, supported at their mothers' homes; of the legitimate children of parents unable to support them; of orphans educated by persons not their parents.

The proportion between the children indirectly relieved at home and those who are directly supported by the State has been gradually changing of late years. Some years ago the former were quite in a minority. They are now rapidly becoming more

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numerous than the others. The mothers are, indeed, at present, systematically encouraged to retain their offspring.

The law of 1811 above referred to provides that all children belonging to the four main classes above-mentioned shall be supported by the administrative commission of the district, which shall act as their guardian; that they shall be educated, as far as possible, in the country, the infants being confided to paid wet nurses, and the older children apprenticed to respectable farmers or artizans until they be grown up. In every department this service is to be assigned to one of the asylums or almshouses; and inspectors appointed by the Government are to control the persons to whom the children are entrusted, and see that their moral and physical well-being is properly attended to.

The same law places the boys thus supported at the disposal of the Minister of Marine; but no advantage is ever taken of this provision, which is disapproved of in principle. Indeed, anything calculated to distinguish the children from their more fortunate companions, or establish a badge of inferiority, is carefully avoided.

In almost all the departments the State ceases to pay for the support of the children when they reach their twelfth year. They are then generally apprenticed to a peasant, who receives no other remuneration than their services; but they remain until they are grown up, under the legal guardianship of the hospital administrative commission.

The remarks relative to the chargeability of pauper lunatics, and in particular to the share of the communes in the expenditure, apply to the children supported by the State.

Vagrants and beggars.

Articles 269 to 280 of the Penal Code treat of the repression of vagrancy and begging. These articles, which constitute the legislation in force on the subject, are to the following effect:—

The offence of vagrancy is punished by an imprisonment of from three to six months, after which the culprit is placed under the surveillance of the police for a period of from five to ten years. Vagrants under 14 years of age are not to be imprisoned, but are merely to be watched by the police till they be grown up. Native vagrants may be claimed by their communes after conviction, or be bailed out by a solvent citizen.

All persons found begging in a place which possesses a public establishment organized for the preventing of begging (*i.e.* a dépôt de mendicité) will be imprisoned for a period of from three to six months, after which he will be conducted to the dépôt de mendicité. Where such an establishment is not provided, the culprit, if able-bodied, will be imprisoned for a period of from one to three months. Should he have been taken into custody out of his own canton he will be imprisoned for not less than six months and not more than two years.

All mendicants, even though infirm, who are found guilty of using threats, of entering a house or inclosure without leave, of exposing pretended sores or infirmities, of begging in company

(unless they constitute a single family), shall suffer an imprisonment of from six months to two years.

All beggars and vagrants found disguised, armed, or possessed of housebreaking instruments, shall be imprisoned for a period of from two to four years.

All beggars or vagrants found in possession of one or more articles of over 100 francs (4l.) in value, and unable to account for them, shall be imprisoned for from six months to two years. If guilty of attempting or committing violence, the beggar or vagrant shall suffer an imprisonment of from two to five years, without prejudice to severer penalties.

The maximum penalties enacted against the bearers of false certificates, passports, or safe-conducts, are always to be applied where the culprit is a beggar or vagrant.

Persons condemned for the above offences of vagrancy and mendicity shall, after the expiration of their sentence, remain under the surveillance of the police for a period of from five to ten years.

A law, passed in December 1849, enables the authorities to remove from French territory all foreigners whose presence may be considered injurious to the interests of the State. This law is frequently applied in the case of foreign paupers, who are transported in prison railway vans to the frontier of the country which the authorities may select. Where there is no reason to the contrary this is generally the frontier of the state of which the pauper is a native, or the nearest frontier on the way to it. It not unfrequently happens, however, that the foreign pauper has some reason for dreading a return to his native country; in this case he is permitted to select the foreign state to which he shall be sent, and he generally selects England.

If we now endeavour to ascertain the exact number of paupers supported by the State, we shall find that, with a system such as pauperism that I have described, the task is not an easy one, for where outdoor relief plays so important a part, it is often impossible to decide how many of the recipients are absolute paupers. Many, if not most, of the poor relieved by the bureaux de bienfaisance, have other resources; they eke out their means of existence by partial work or by appeals to private charity. Again, the hospital population, though temporarily supported by the State, can in no wise be considered as paupers; and many of the inmates of the almshouses and asylums contribute to their own support, while the dépôts de mendicité, besides being penitentiary establishments for a special offence, begging, can evidently furnish us with but a limited criterion of French pauperism.

Native writers on the subject give indeed the name of pauperism exclusively to the heterogeneous species of poverty relieved by the bureaux de bienfaisance.

This difficulty in determining in figures the precise extent of pauperism in our sense of the word, is, I am inclined to believe, one of the happy results of the French system of public charity,

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and especially of the extension of out-door relief, which anticipates and often wards off absolute destitution.

No class exactly corresponding with that which fills our workhouses forms in France the subject of statistical inquiry; while many persons who in England would find a place in the workhouse are relieved in this country by means widely different.

I shall, therefore, confine myself to a recapitulation of the numbers I have already given of the several classes of persons wholly or partially supported by the various branches of the "Assistance Publique."

Recapitulation.

Poor relieved by the bureaux de bien-faisance	-	-	-	1,303,081
Sick in hospitals	-	-	-	336,130
Lunatics	-	-	-	12,589
Women in childbed	-	-	-	16,132
Newborn infants	-	-	-	13,581
Casuals	-	-	-	27,155
Aged and incurable in almshouses	-	-	-	52,781
Orphan and abandoned children (1 st '64.)	-	-	-	45,322

I am unable to add the number of the persons confined for begging in the dépôts de mendicité; it will appear in a supplement to this Report, together with more recent statistics on the orphan and abandoned children, which are being collected by the Government.

Conclusion.

Those who enjoy public relief in France are rarely able-bodied. The sick in mind or body, the infant, and the aged, form the great mass of the recipients of relief. The dépôts de mendicité, which include both infirm and able-bodied inmates, are, as I have shown, rather houses of correction than institutions for the relief of pauperism.

The French system is a happy combination of private benevolence with official guarantees. The sympathy of the public is enlisted for the poor by authority; both the public and the Government working together in the great cause of charity. The composition of the unpaid commissions for in-door and out-door relief secures for the indigent the active co-operation of charitable persons, while their connexion with the municipalities and their control by the Government are guarantees against abuse. The legislature has wisely separated the management of the funds destined for the poor from that of the municipal finances; and the interests of the poor are confided to other hands than those which undertake the general interests of the commune. The public, moreover, being conscious that the poor have no legal right to support, feel bound in honour to afford it, and acquiesce cheerfully in the expenditure of the communes and department, even when they do not contribute more directly by gifts and legacies. It is from the communal customs duties (*octroi*) that the subsidies which the municipal councils are in the habit of voting are principally derived; and this tax, which is applied to many other objects

besides the one in question, never comes to be regarded as a poor-rate. Indeed, it may be doubted whether many of the persons who pay it remember that the money they are losing contributes to the support of the poor. It would be difficult, therefore, to imagine a system under which the taxpayer would feel the burden of supporting the poor more lightly, or one creating less hostility between supporter and supported.

E. LEE HAMILTON.

Paris, February 1872.

Foreign Office, July 17th, 1872.

SIR,

Government Office.

WITH reference to Lord Enfield's letter of the 19th of February last, enclosing a Report drawn up by Mr. Lee Hamilton upon the subject of the Public Relief of the Poor in France, I am directed by Earl Granville to transmit to you, to be laid before the President of the Local Government Board, a supplement to that Report, which Mr. Hamilton states has been rendered necessary by some legislative changes which have recently been made in France.

I am, Sir,

Your most obedient,

Humble servant,

The Secretary,

Local Government Board.

E. HAMMOND.

PUBLIC RELIEF OF THE POOR IN FRANCE (*Supplementary*).

I stated in the Report on the Public Relief of the Poor in France, to which this is a supplement, that the Government had brought into the National Assembly a Bill for the reconstruction of the local commissions entrusted with the administration of the hospitals and asylums, as well as of those other local commissions entrusted with the administration of the various bureaux de bienfaisance. This Bill, dated July 1871, proposed the fusion, in each locality, of these two commissions, without any amalgamation of the respective services; that is to say, it proposed that the hospitals and asylums on the one hand, and the bureaux de bienfaisance on the other hand, should be managed in every town by the same set of persons, but that the budgets of the two services should remain distinct.

The parliamentary committee to whom the Bill in question was referred, has quite recently expressed its disapproval of this proposed fusion, which the Government has consequently abandoned; and the respective commissions for in-door and out-door relief will remain separate, as heretofore. The modifications adopted by the National Assembly, therefore, relate almost exclusively to the system of nomination for the charitable commissions.

Modifications
of the Committee.

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In virtue of the decrees of the 23rd March and 17th June, 1852, the nomination of both classes of administrative commissions has hitherto belonged to the prefect of the department, through whom they have frequently been subjected to the uncontrolled influence of the Executive Government. In my previous Report, I gave a striking example of the arbitrary pressure exerted by the prefects under the late Imperial régime upon the charitable commissions. One of the main objects of the present change is to place their nomination on a more liberal basis, and to render such arbitrary pressure impossible for the future. It has been thought advisable to share the right of nomination between a variety of vested interests: the State, through the prefect; the commune, through the municipal council; the department, through the general (*i.e.*, departmental) council; the Roman Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish communities, through their respective religious authorities; the bar, through the local tribunal; and the commercial community, in very large towns, through the chamber of commerce.

The debates which have taken place in the Assembly upon this subject have not been wanting in passion, for, unfortunately, in the present condition of France, no question, however remote in appearance from the ordinary scope of politics, is entirely secure from party influence. The key to these debates must be sought in the fact that the sustained efforts of the radical members of the Assembly have been exerted to obtain the exclusive nomination of the charitable commissions by the municipal councils, which in the larger towns are mostly in the hands of the radical party.

The principal argument employed with this object consisted in the assertion that the charitable institutions (including both hospitals and bureaux de bienfaisance) are essentially communal or municipal, a misrepresentation which I have already explained in the first part of this Report, where it was shown that they are all establishments having an individual history which can often be traced back to former centuries, and that they have moreover a legal status of their own entirely distinct from that of the municipality, with which they are only incidentally connected by the mayor being their *ex officio* President, and the seat of their deliberations being generally at the *mairie*.

The result has, however, upon this point been in decided conformity with the more conservative ideas of the Government and of the majority of the Chamber; and for the future the number of administrators appointed by the municipal council of each locality will be only two out of a commission consisting of twelve or thirteen persons.

New system.
Hospital and
asylum com-
missions.

The Bill, as modified by the Assembly, provides that in all towns of more than 100,000 inhabitants* (except Paris and Lyons, where a special organisation is considered to be indispensable), the administrative commission for hospitals and asylums shall consist of: The mayor as president, two members elected by the municipal

* Rouen, Lille, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Nantes, and Toulouse.

council, one member elected by the general council, two members appointed by the prefect, one member elected by the Court of Appeal, or, in default, by the *Tribunal de Première Instance*, one member elected by the chamber of commerce, two members elected by the existing hospital commission, one member named by the Roman Catholic bishop or archbishop of the diocese, one member elected by the Presbyterial Council of the Reformed (Protestant) Church, and one member elected by the Jewish consistory.

In the capitals of departments and arrondissements, and in all other places of more than 10,000 inhabitants, the composition of the hospital commission is to be as above, with the exception that only one member will be elected by the existing commission, and none by the chamber of commerce. The Protestant and Jewish communities will be represented if there is a Presbyterial council or a Jewish consistory in the place.

In all other communes the mayor will be president *ex officio*, two members will be elected by the municipal council, and one by the existing commission ; the prefect will appoint two members, and the Roman Catholic bishop one. The Protestant and Jewish communities will be represented, if possible.

Violent opposition was manifested during the debates by the radical members, and even by some of the moderate members of the Assembly, to the proposed introduction of ministers of different creeds into the administrative commissions, as it was feared that the result might be a want of unity of purpose in the commissions themselves, and a diminution in the voluntary contributions which form so important a part of their receipts.

It was also objected that the medical profession, so obviously connected with the charitable establishments, was not entrusted by the Bill with the nomination of any members of the commissions, and was conspicuous by its absence. But it was answered that there was nothing to prevent physicians being named members of the commissions by any of the other persons or corporations to whom the right of nomination was granted ; and it was pointed out that the presence of physicians was in itself undesirable, as differences of opinion might easily arise between the physician belonging to the charitable commission and those immediately entrusted with the care of the sick poor, to the manifest prejudice of the poor themselves.

A proposal was made in the course of the debates, that the posts of physicians and surgeons in public hospitals and asylums in all towns having a population of more than 20,000 inhabitants should be open to public competition, but this proposal was negative.

It will be remembered that by a law passed on the 7th of August 1851, the administrative commissions for hospitals and asylums have hitherto been permitted to spend only one-fifth of their revenues in out-door medical assistance and the annual pecuniary relief of aged and infirm persons residing with their families, and that this legal restriction has been constantly violated by most of

Hospital physicians and surgeons.

Out-door hospital relief.

FRANCE.

the commissions, who have been in the habit of spending much more than one-fifth of their revenues in out-door relief. It has now been decided to raise to one-quarter the share of hospital receipts available for this purpose, and even to allow it to be raised to one-third, on condition of the concurrence of the general council of the department being previously obtained. With respect to out-door medical relief, the hospital commissions are moreover authorised to enter into direct communication with the bureau de bienfaisance, and to act in concert with it.

Bureaux de bienfaisance.

The bureau de bienfaisance in all capitals of departments and arrondissements, and in all other towns of more than 10,000 inhabitants, will consist of: The mayor as president, two members elected by the municipal council, two appointed by the prefect, one elected by the Court of Appeal, or, in default, by the Tribunal de Première Instance, one elected by the existing bureau de bienfaisance, one appointed by the archbishop or bishop of the diocese, and one member elected by the Protestant council or Jewish consistory respectively where such council or consistory may be in existence.

In all other communes: The mayor as president, two members elected by the municipal council, two named by the prefect, one elected by the existing bureau de bienfaisance, one appointed by the bishop of the diocese; the Protestant and Jewish communities to be represented if possible.

The functions of the administrative commissions for both the hospitals and the bureaux will continue, as heretofore, gratuitous, and will be limited to a period of five years. The commissions will be renewed every year by one-fifth of the members being eliminated by lot. Their successors are to be named by the same persons or corporations as had named the outgoing members.

The Minister of the Interior retains the right of dissolving the commissions; the receivers continue to be appointed by the prefects, but must be chosen from a list presented by the commissions.

The special organization of "Public Assistance" for both indoor and out-door relief, established in Paris by the law of the 10th of January 1849, and of which I gave a detailed description, will remain unaffected, at least for the present.

Many of the reasons which require a special organization for the public relief of the poor of Paris apply with equal force to the case of Lyons, and an exception has therefore been established in favour of the second great city of France. The following is the new composition of the Lyons Hospital Administration Commission:—

Lyons Hospital Commission.

The mayor as president *ex officio*, two magistrates elected by the Court of Appeal, one magistrate elected by the Civil Tribunal, one advocate elected by the *Conseil de l'Ordre*, two members elected by the General Council of the Department, four by the Municipal Council, one elected by the Tribunal of Commerce, one by the Chamber of Commerce, one by the *Conseil des Prud'hommes* (working men's council), two appointed by the archbishop, one elected by the Protestant consistory, one elected by the Jewish

"Assistance Publique" of Paris.**Organization for the city of Lyons.**

consistory, three appointed by the prefect, seven elected by the existing hospital administrative council.

The Lyons Bureau de Bienfaisance for the out-door relief of the poor will be constituted as follows : The mayor as president, two members elected by the Municipal Council, two elected by the existing bureau de bienfaisance, two appointed by the prefect, one elected by the Court of Appeal, one elected by the Chamber of Commerce, two appointed by the archbishop, one elected by the Protestant consistory, and one by the Jewish consistory.

In describing the various public hospitals of Paris, I said that Public hospitals of Paris. I was unable to give more than an approximative statement of the accommodation they afford, on account of the fact that supplementary beds are in use according to the exigencies of the service. I am now enabled to give the exact number of beds existing in each of the Paris hospitals at the present moment, a new statistical return having just been published on the subject.

Hôtel Dieu, 828 ; La Pitié, 620 ; La Charité, 474 ; St. Antoine, 480 ; Necker, 386 ; Cochin, 120 ; Beaujon, 416 ; Lariboisière, 600 ; St. Louis, 840 ; Midi, 336 ; Lourcine, 276 ; Cliniques, 152 ; Ste. Eugénie, 405.

It will be noticed that this list does not include the public hospitals of La Maternité and the Enfants Trouvés, nor the two small establishments which the "Assistance Publique" of Paris maintains in the country at Berck-sur-Mer and at Roche-Guyon for the use of scrofulous children. Assuming as correct the number of beds attributed to these four institutions in the first part of the present Report (viz., Maternité, 410 ; Enfants Trouvés, with branch hospital at Forges, 700 ; Berck-sur-Mer, 100 ; Roche-Guyon, 100), we therefore obtain a total number of 7,248 beds for all the Paris hospitals, a figure considerably below the previous estimate, which was based upon the latest returns obtainable at the time.

With respect to the statistics on the dépôts de mendicité, which Dépôts de mendicité. I was led to expect by the department of the Ministry of the Interior concerned in these establishments, I regret to have to state that I see no prospect of obtaining them this year. The collection of these statistics, in itself a tedious process, appears to have been indefinitely postponed.

E. LEE HAMILTON.

Paris, July 12th, 1872.

Report on Private Charitable Organization in PARIS, by E. Lee Hamilton.

THE private charitable societies of France are for the most part in close connection with the establishments of the Roman Catholic Church, and generally combine other objects, such as religious conversion, doctrinal instruction, prayer in common, &c., with that of material relief. In many cases, as for instance in that of

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the Society of St. François de Paul, it is very difficult to distinguish the material from the moral and religious assistance afforded by these associations. They are nearly all under the management of priests or sisters of charity.

In a country where, as in France, the great bulk of the population belongs to one religious community, where sects are few, and a secular State system of out-door relief is established, the efforts of private associations, though directed by one religious establishment, have, as far as they go, a general bearing. Comparatively few, however, of these associations have an extended action.

As a general rule French charitable societies are not subjected to statistical inquiry. "La charité privée," says an authority, "échappe à la statistique." I have therefore no means of obtaining information respecting these societies in the provinces, and must limit myself to those of Paris.

The private charitable institutions of Paris, such as they are, are exceedingly numerous, and a detailed description of all of them would be a work of many months, perhaps of years. I enclose herewith a volume in which this work has been performed with care, and which will supply most of the information required by the Society for the Organization of Charitable Relief; and shall confine myself to pointing out the societies of most importance, and especially those which are secular and whose action extends over the whole of Paris; and to giving what additional information I have been able to collect.

Before doing so, however, it seems advisable to offer a few remarks upon Parisian pauperism in general, and upon the official provision existing for the poor.

It is exceedingly difficult, indeed impossible, to determine in figures the extent of pauperism in our sense of the word. No class at all corresponding with that which fills our workhouses forms in France the subject of statistical returns; while many persons who in England would find a place in the workhouse are relieved in France by means widely different. French writers give the name of *pauperism* exclusively to the heterogeneous species of poverty relieved by the bureaux de bienfaisance, or official out-door relief boards. These are established at the mairie of every commune, when the necessity for such a board is experienced. During the year 1869 (a normal year, which 1870 and 1871 of course were not,) the number of persons receiving *official* out-door relief in Paris was 111,357 out of a population of 1,799,880, i.e., one out of every sixteen inhabitants.

Paris is divided into twenty municipal districts (arrondissements), each of which possesses a bureau de bienfaisance established at the mairie. The mayor is president *ex officio*, and the relief, which consists of soup, bread, the loan of sheets, linen, &c., and the gift of old clothes, bath tickets, medicine, &c., but seldom money, is distributed at 57 houses of succour. The average annual value of relief per head afforded by the Paris Bureaux de Bienfaisance is not less than 25 francs (1*l.*)

No workhouses exist in France. The *dépôts de mendicité*, which at first sight might be mistaken for workhouses, are rather places for the punishment of the offence of begging than houses for the relief of pauperism.

In most of the parishes of Paris associations of ladies for the relief of the poor exist under the presidency of the curé. Similar associations are to be found in many of the arrondissements or districts of the capital.

The State grants, through the medium of the Ministry of the Interior, subsidies to many of the private charitable societies. In order to obtain such a subsidy a society must forward to the minister a statement of its objects as well as of its receipts and expenditure. Subsidies are also granted by the Municipal Commission and by the General Council of the Seine.

Special attention should be given to the fact that in France the public is encouraged to entrust to the State the distribution of alms. A large portion of the revenue of the official relief boards consists of voluntary contributions, gifts, and legacies, the stream of private charity being as far as possible diverted into a public channel.

One of the most prominent of the private charitable associations of Paris is the *Société Philanthropique*, which was founded in 1780 by seven charitable persons. Its two main objects are the treatment at their homes of the sick poor who are not on the rolls of the bureaux de bienfaisance, and the general distribution of food at 5 c. ($\frac{1}{2}$ d.) a dish.

Every person subscribing 30 francs receives a hundred food tickets and a "dispensary card" which is good for one year, and enables the holder to get one sick person treated by competent physicians, the card being sent to the agent of the dispensary with the name and address of the patient. After his cure the card is returned to the holder, who can make use of it for a fresh patient every time it is returned to him. When the card is applied to a case of lying-in, it is not returned before three months.

The annual resources of the Philanthropic Society amount to 70,000 francs (2,800!). The society has established six dispensaries and seven kitchens (*fourneaux*). Through the latter more than 200,000 portions of food are annually distributed, but these kitchens are, however, only open in the winter.

Although each portion is sold at the rate of five centimes, its real cost is more than 10 centimes.

The Philanthropic Society also possesses two special funds, the gift of Messrs. Wolf and Nast, of the respective annual value of 2,700 and 1,812 francs. These sums are divided into prizes of 300, 200, 150, and 100 francs, and are bestowed on the deserving poor.

This society, like all the other charitable institutions (public and private) of Paris, made great efforts during the late siege not only to maintain the efficiency of the relief afforded, but to keep pace with the immense increase of suffering and poverty. We must, therefore, turn to the figures of 1869 in order to form an idea

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In 1869 241,368 portions of food (rice, beans, meat, and broth) were distributed at a total cost of 23,202 fr. 41 c. During the same year 1,180 sick persons received medical assistance, at a cost of 30,243 fr. 39 c. The receipts amounted in 1869 to 71,380 fr. 25 c. and the expenditure to 64,231 fr. 63 c.

In 1870 the kitchens of the Philanthropic Society were opened as early as the 1st of September, and distributed no less than 1,040,909 portions of food at a cost of 73,911 fr. 27 c. The receipts amounted to 87,308 fr. 5c., and the expenditure to 92,571 fr. 60 c. In order to make up for the deficit in its accounts the society has been obliged to expend a portion of its capital.

I subjoin a couple of printed reports of the "Société Philanthropique," as well as one of its dispensary cards and some of its food tickets.

The Duc de la Rochefoucauld is the present president of this society. Its office is situated 115, Rue St. Honoré, and is open daily from 1 till 3.

The *Society of St. Vincent de Paul* is a religious association which was founded in 1833 by a number of young men having two objects in view, viz., self-improvement through the practice of charity, and the alleviation of the spiritual and temporal misery of the poor.

The society engages in every description of charity, but the visiting of the poor at their homes is its principal occupation. Each of its members selects a certain number of poor families, and carries to them every week bread, meat, fuel, &c. He sees to the children being sent to the catechism and to school, apprentices the older ones, and procures work for the adult poor. The society has organized homes where the young workmen can spend their time in improving occupations. Seven houses have been founded in Paris with this object. It has also founded "associations of pious families," funds for assisting the poor in the payment of house rent, offices where the poor can obtain legal advice, establishments for clothing them, libraries, and committees for the "réhabilitation des unions illicites."

The society is divided into *conferences*, which are to be found in nearly all the parishes of Paris. Weekly meetings are held, where all questions respecting the families receiving relief are debated. The funds are distributed among the members at these meetings, and a collection is made which is the principal source of revenue. Charity sermons, lotteries, and subscriptions are also resorted to.

I have not been able, on applying to the headquarters of this society (Secrétariat Général, 6, Rue Furstemberg) to obtain any statistics respecting its action in the material relief of the poor, and it will be seen that its yearly printed report, which I enclose herewith, consists chiefly of self-congratulation upon the moral results of the society's activity.

Œuvre des Pauvres Malades.—This society was founded, in its

present shape, in 1840, under the patronage of the superior of the Lazarists, its object being the visiting of the sick poor at their homes. Its action extends to almost all the parishes of Paris. The society is composed of lady visitors and lady treasurers. The former visit the sick poor in conjunction with the sisters of St. François de Paul, and carry various kinds of relief. They also endeavour to improve the moral condition of the patients. The treasurers, who collect subscriptions, engage to pay 50 francs a year. The present president of the society is the Princesse de Bauffremont Courtenay. The Duchesse d'Atrisco is general treasurer. The seat of the society is the convent of the Lazarists, Rue de Sévres. According to the report for 1869, published in 1870, the last I have been able to procure, the number of sick attended in the first mentioned year was 49,980, as many as 186,020 visits being paid to them. The efforts of the society extend, as I have said, to the spiritual condition of the patients; in 1869, 257 sick persons were baptized, 154 confirmed, while 758 conversions, 31 abjurations, and 551 marriages were brought about.

The Ministry of the Interior is in the habit of granting to this society a subsidy of 1,000 francs, while the city of Paris grants from 1,000 to 1,500.

The *Œuvre de la Miséricorde* was founded in 1833 by a lady of the name of Dumarbray. Its object is the relief of families which have been in easy circumstances but which have become destitute. French citizens only are relieved. Applicants must have resided at least a year in Paris and not be in receipt of relief from the bureau de bienfaisance. The funds of the society are derived from gifts and subscriptions, and it is managed by a general committee, all the members of which pay 20 francs a year. The treasurer is M. Collinet, 9, Rue de Poitiers. The president is the Prince de Chalais, 115, Rue St. Dominique, and the Vicomte de Melun, 76, Rue St. Dominique, is the secretary.

During the last ten years the annual number of subscribers has been about 220; that of the visiting members, 50; that of the persons annually relieved, 550; and the annual receipts of the society from 30 to 32,000 francs. I enclose a copy of the rules of the *Œuvre de la Miséricorde*.

In 1862 a semi-official association was founded under the name of *Société du Prince Impérial*. Its object is to afford loans to poor workmen in order to enable them to purchase tools and raw materials. The society consists of the original members who are children, or supposed to be such, who have paid down at least 100 francs (or 10 francs a year regularly), and of associate members (also supposed to be children) who pay 10 cents a week.

Until 1870 this society was under the honorary presidency of the Empress. It is directed by a committee of twenty persons appointed by the Government, and by local committees. The loans, which do not exceed 500 francs, are granted at 2½ per cent., and for a period not exceeding three years. The office of the

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A society for facilitating marriages among the poor, and for obtaining the legitimacy of their natural children, was founded in 1826 by M. Gossuin under the name of "*Société Charitable de St. François Régis.*" Since its foundation this society has obtained the celebration of upwards of 40,000 marriages, and the legitimacy of nearly 30,000 children. M. Hardouin is the president, and M. Léon Gossin the vice-president. The society is established at No. 3, Rue du Gindre, Paris.

A society called the "*Comité de Patronage pour les Prévenus acquittés,*" was founded in 1836 by M. Demetz. Its object is the temporary relief, after their acquittal, of persons who have been arrested under various charges. In the case of provincials or foreigners, the society frequently helps them to return to their homes.

A society whose objects are almost the same as those of the above is established at No. 9, Rue de Mézières. It was founded in 1843 under the title of "*Société pour le Patronage des jeunes Détenus et des jeunes Libérés du Département de la Seine.*" About 120 children are under its care. M. Perrot de Chezelles, conseiller à la Cour de Cessation, is its president. The secretary is M. Bournat, 20, Rue Jacob. The principal agent resides at the seat of the society.

Société Nationale de l'Encouragement au Bien.—The object of this society is to encourage habits of order, economy, and temperance among the poor. It distributes medals, savings bank tickets, &c. The president is Baron Ladoucette, 74, Rue de Chaillot. The secretary is M. Arnauld, 18, Rue de l'Eglise, Paris-Passy.

Société des Bains.—The object of this society is to furnish cheap baths (15 c. = $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. a bath) to the children of the schools frequented by the poorer classes. It was founded in 1854 by the Vicomte de Cormenin. About 40,000 baths are annually given. The State contributes, I believe, 10,000 francs (400*l.*) a year to this institution, which is otherwise supported by a small capital of its own and by voluntary contributions. The secretary lives at No. 5, Rue Racine.

Numerous societies are established in Paris for the adoption of poor children and orphans (*e.g.* the *Œuvre de l'Adoption*, directed by the Abbé Jacquet, 43, Rue de Tournelles), and for the relief of women in child-bed (*e.g.* the *Société de Charité Maternelle*) as well as for the protection and relief of various classes of the population (*e.g.* *Œuvre du Patronage des jeunes Ouvrières*). These associations, which do not appear to fall exactly within the scope of the inquiries to which this report is an answer, will be found enumerated in the small volume above referred to, and which is enclosed herewith.

From the foregoing observations it will be apparent that while an effective State organization for the out-door relief of the poor of all classes and creeds is organized throughout France, comparatively few of the numerous private charitable associations are secular, or have a general object and an extended action.

May 8th, 1872.

E. LEE HAMILTON.

Les Sociétés Charitables de BOULOGNE, par Edouard Flour.

BOULOGNE.

Depuis la fin du dernier siècle et le commencement du siècle, les moyens employés pour venir en aide aux classes nécessiteuses ont subi, en France, d'importantes transformations.

La révolution de 1789 ayant tari ou déplacé la plupart des secours qui avaient pour but le soulagement des pauvres, il a fallu tout à la fois créer des institutions nouvelles et apporter des modifications nombreuses dans celles qui existaient déjà.

C'est ainsi que ce sont fondés les bureaux de bienfaisance et que les hospices, les hôpitaux, les monts-de-piété ont vu des changements considérables s'introduire dans leur organisation, et voient, tous les jours encore, modifier leurs règlements afin de les mettre plus en rapport avec l'état actuel de la société et les besoins de notre époque.

Il est ici utile de faire remarquer que les établissements de bienfaisance comportent deux divisions distinctes :

1^o. Les *Etablissements publics*, c'est-à-dire ceux que le gouvernement fonde, adopte, ou entretient dans l'intérêt public ; ceux que les départements et les communes fondent, et adoptent également dans un intérêt public et dont la fondation est autorisée ou approuvée par un décret ; ces établissements sont sous la tutelle de l'autorité et sont soumis au régime prescrit pour tous les établissements de même genre ; ils ont leur budget et leur comptabilité, et peuvent posséder, acquérir, aliéner, et accomplir tous les actes de la vie civile en se conformant aux règlements.

2^o. Les *Etablissements privés*, qui sont ceux entretenus et administrés par des particuliers. Ces établissements n'ont point d'existence propre ; ils sont incapables de contracter et par conséquent de recevoir des libéralités. Les dons et les legs qui leur seraient faits directement tomberaient en caducité et ne pourraient être valablement acceptés par leurs fondateurs.

La branche la plus importante et la plus intéressante des *Bureaux de bienfaisance* sont les secours à domicile, les hôpitaux et les hospices n'en sont pour ainsi dire que le complément ; ces établissements sont nécessaires pour ceux qui se trouvent dans un dénuement absolu, sans parents, sans amis, sans aucun moyen d'existence ; mais les secours à domicile conviennent à la généralité des pauvres. La morale publique ne peut que gagner à ce mode de secours, qui tend à resserrer les liens de famille et à aider des enfants ou des parents à remplir un devoir que leur prescrit la nature.

Le Bureau de Bienfaisance de Boulogne-sur-mer a été fondé la 1^{er} Juillet 1805. Il est installé dans un immeuble approprié à sa destination, lequel comprend les divers locaux nécessaires pour la confection de certains secours et la distribution de tous les secours en général ; il a une pharmacie, un laboratoire, un cabinet pour les consultations du médecin, une lingerie, une installation de fourneaux, magasin au charbon, salle d'attente pour les pauvres, bureaux, &c.

BOULOGNE.

Le Bureau de Bienfaisance est administré par une commission composée du maire de la ville, qui en est le président de droit, et de cinq administrateurs, nommés par le préfet, et qui sont MM. Lipsin, vice-président ; Lardeur ; A. Crouy ; J. Grandsire, et Dorlencourt-Marsan.

Ces membres sortent, par rang d'ancienneté, un chaque année ; ils sont rééligibles. Leurs fonctions sont gratuites.

La commission administrative se réunit en séance, au siège de l'établissement, rue Charles Butor, No. 18, tous les Vendredis, à 3 heures après midi.

En dehors de la commission administrative, il y a un receveur, nommé par le préfet, et un secrétaire-rédacteur, choisi par l'administration. Ces deux agents sont rétribués.

Le receveur est M. Wisscoq ; le secrétaire-rédacteur, M. Ed. Flour.

Trois médecins, nommés par le préfet et rétribués par l'administration ; ce sont MM. Biencourt, Legay, et Bourgain.

Onze sœurs de charité sont attachées à l'établissement ; elles sont logées, chauffées, et éclairées, et reçoivent chacune un traitement annuel de 500 francs.

201 b 6 d
Les médecins visitent les malades à domicile, et donnent, à tour de rôle, deux fois la semaine chacun, des consultations gratuites aux pauvres.

Les sœurs sont pour l'administration de précieux auxiliaires ; elles visitent les pauvres à domicile, donnent leurs soins et leurs conseils aux malades, s'assurent que les enfants ont été vaccinés, qu'ils fréquentent assidument les écoles, que l'hygiène et la propreté règnent dans les ménages. Elles distribuent les divers secours accordés aux familles indigentes, confectionnent les soupes et le bouillon ; préparent et distribuent, d'après les prescriptions des médecins, les tisanes et les médicaments magistraux. Elles tiennent la lingerie où se trouvent les draps et chemises que l'administration prête aux malades, aux femmes en couches, et aux vieillards. Parfaitement au courant de la situation des pauvres, les sœurs fournissent à l'administration les renseignements nécessaires sur les familles secourues et sur les besoins de celles qui sollicitent les secours ; elles ont chacune un quartier spécial, sous la direction immédiate d'un nombre de la commission, et tiennent un registre de renseignements sur les familles confiées à leur charitable sollicitude.

Tous les malheureux peuvent participer aux secours du Bureau de Bienfaisance, lorsque la force des circonstances les met dans l'impossibilité de pourvoir à leurs premiers besoins ; ce sont donc ces besoins que le Bureau de Bienfaisance s'applique à constater, car autant on doit s'empresser de secourir le véritable indigent, autant on doit éviter, par une distribution aveugle, d'alimenter l'oisiveté, la débauche, et les autres vices dont le résultat inévitable est la misère.

C'est d'après ces principes que les pauvres sont visités, classés, et secourus, et il est bon d'ajouter qu'aucun indigent ne reçoit des

secours s'il ne certifie qu'il envoie régulièrement ses enfants à BOULOGNE.
l'école.

Une des premières choses dont le Bureau de Bienfaisance doit à s'occuper c'est de s'assurer si l'indigent qui se présente pour être secouru a le domicile de secours.

Ce domicile, qui s'acquiert au bout d'un an, n'est autre chose, d'après l'esprit de la loi, que le fait d'une résidence réelle, qui, soumettant virtuellement le domicile aux charges locales, l'affilie en retour à la famille communale.

Les listes des indigents admis à participer aux secours comprennent deux parties : la première pour les indigents temporairement secourus, la seconde pour les indigents secourus annuellement. Ces listes sont arrêtées en séance, on porte dans leur formation de la sévérité, comme il est impossible de secourir tous les pauvres, et que ceux qui sont secourus ne peuvent l'être que dans une proportion inférieure à leurs besoins, il y a un choix à faire, et la justice, ainsi que l'humanité, exigent que ce choix soit en faveur des plus malheureux. Cet examen porte sur l'âge, les infirmités, le nombre d'enfants, les causes de la misère, les ressources qui sont à leur disposition, et leur conduite.

C'est, autant que possible, en nature que les secours doivent être distribués. Le pain, la soupe, les vêtements et les combustibles sont les objets qui peuvent le mieux remplir les besoins.

Le nombre des indigents secourus annuellement était en 1870 de 3682 individus, formant ensemble 894 familles ;

Le nombre des indigents secourus temporairement de 2207 individus, formant ensemble 530 familles ; soit en total—

5889 individus,
1424 familles.

Au dernier recensement (1866), la population de Boulogne était de 40,251 habitants.

Le rapport des indigents est de 14 63/100 pour cent. habitants, en d'autres termes, 1 indigent par 7 habitants.

Dénombrement de la population indigente.

Familles de 2 chefs, 785 soit	-	-	1570	individus.
Veufs	-	-	74	"
Veuves	-	-	394	"
Hommes abandonnés	-	-	5	"
Femmes abandonnées	-	-	28	"
Hommes célibataires	-	-	188	"
Femmes célibataires	-	-	224	"
Orphelins des deux sexes	-	-	80	"
Enfants do.	-	-	3291	"
Vieillards chez leurs enfants	-	-	35	"
Total	-	-	5889	individus.

BOULOGNE.**Vieillards secourus à domicile :**

Nonagénaires	-	-	-	-	2
Octogénaires	-	-	-	-	35
Septuagénaires	-	-	-	-	140
Sexagénaires	-	-	-	-	220
Total	-	-	-	-	<u>397 vieillards.</u>

Service médical.

Le nombre total des malades soignés à domicile par les médecins du Bureau de Bienfaisance s'est élevé, pendant l'année 1870, à 379, sur lesquels il y a eu 127 décès; soit 33 décès, 52/100 pour cent.

106 accouchements ont été opérés par les sages-femmes rétribuées à cet effet par le bureau, à raison de f. 5 par accouchement.

2775 visites à domicile ont été faites par les médecins du Bureau de Bienfaisance.

Il y a eu, en outre, 1120 consultations au siège de l'établissement.

3895 prescriptions ont été formulées par les médecins.

Les femmes en couche, outre les honoraires de la sage-femme que paie le bureau, reçoivent une layette pour leur nouveau né et du bouillon, 3 fois la semaine, pendant 3 semaines.

Distributions en nature.

Secours distribués.	Pain : 85,062 kilog. au prix moyen de f. 0.927 les 3 kilo.	-	-	-	26,278	82
	Combustibles : { 1,600 morins tibles : { 126,375 kilo. de charbon } pour	-	-	-	3,664	13
	Comestibles et menus objets de consom- mation pour soupes	-	-	-	898	73
	Linge, vêtements et literies	-	-	-	3,198	23
	Secours en argent	-	-	-	1,699	30
	Total des secours affectés principale- ment aux indigents valides	-	-	{ f. 35,739	21	

Cette somme de f. 35,739 21, répartie entre les 5889 indigents secourus, et en supposant, qu'en moyenne, ils n'aient reçu des secours que la moitié de l'année, donnerait environ f. 12 par individu.

Les familles les plus nécessiteuses reçoivent, en hiver, environ 3 kilog. de pain, 10 kilog. de charbon, et plusieurs portions de soupe, de chacune une litre, par semaine.

Le bouillon est confectionné dans l'établissement 3 fois par semaine, il est distribué par portions d'un litre, à laquelle est ajoutée une part de viande.

Un nombre assez considérable de vieillards, convalescents et

femmes en couches participent à ce secours spécial. 25,200 litres BOULOGNE.
de bouillon ont été distribués pendant l'année 1870.

La quantité de soupes distribuée pendant l'hiver de la dite année s'élève à 10,690 litres.

Deux barriques de vin rouge ont été distribuées, par portions de 01. 75 cl., sur prescriptions des médecins, aux malades, convalescents, et infirmes. La dépense pour ce secours exceptionnel s'est élevée à f. 300.

La quantité de viande distribuée s'élève à 6017 kilog., à f. 1 05 le kilog., ce qui fait une dépense de f. 6317 85.

Enfin, les achats de médicaments et dépenses de pharmacie ont atteint le chiffre de f. 2587 35.

D'après une évaluation approximative, le maximum des secours distribués dans la semaine serait d'environ f. 1100; tandis que le minimum atteindrait à peine la somme de f. 700.

Hospices.

Après avoir exposé les moyens employés par le Bureau de Bienfaisance pour venir en aide aux classes nécessiteuses, il convient de considérer ceux de l'hospice.

Les hospices sont les établissements dans lesquels sont admis et entretenus les vieillards, les infirmes, les orphelins, les enfants trouvés et abandonnés.

Les hôpitaux sont les établissements dans lesquels sont reçus et traités les indigents malades.

Très-souvent il arrive qu'un établissement soit à la fois hôpital et hospice; il prend alors génériquement le nom d'hospice.

La ville de Boulogne-sur-Mer possède un établissement de ce genre, tout à la fois hôpital et hospice, reconstruit en grande partie à la fin du 17e siècle, et dont la fondation remonte au-delà du 15e siècle.

Les deux services sont distincts l'un de l'autre, quoique réunis dans un même établissement. Le tout occupe un vaste terrain, de forme à peu près rectangulaire, situé au centre même de la ville.

Il existe dans l'établissement une chapelle, une pharmacie avec laboratoire, un lavoir, salle de bains, buanderie, séchoir, lingerie, vastes cours, jardin, bureaux, et tous les accessoires nécessaires à sa destination.

L'hospice est, comme le Bureau de Bienfaisance, administré par une commission qui se réunit en séance tous les Vendredis, à 3 heures de l'après-midi. Cette commission se compose de M. le maire de la ville, président de droit, et de cinq administrateurs, MM. L. Grandsire, vice-président, Duprey-Martin, Mauduit, père, Larché, et E. Hénin. Ces membres sont nommés par le préfet, renouvelables par cinquième en suivant l'ordre d'ancienneté. Ils sont rééligibles. Leurs fonctions sont gratuites.

Le service des bureaux comprend un secrétaire-économiste, nommé par le préfet, plus trois employés. Le secrétaire-économiste est M. St. Gest.

Le service financier comprend un receveur, également nommé par le préfet, M. Aug. Flour. Ces différents agents sont rétribués.

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Le service de santé se compose—d'un médecin en chef, M. le Dr. Gros ; d'un chirurgien en chef, M. le Dr. Duhamel ; d'un médecin-chirurgien adjoint, M. le Dr. Cazin ; d'un pharmacien, M. Biencourt. Ces médecins, chirurgiens, et pharmacien sont nommés par le préfet et rétribués par l'administration.

Il y a une sage-femme attachée à l'établissement.

Le service religieux et hospitalier se compose d'un aumônier, M. l'Abbé Duval, et de 13 religieuses plus 5 sœurs converses.

Service intérieur.

Le service intérieur de l'établissement est confié aux religieuses, qui non-seulement soignent les malades avec un dévouement admirable, mais encore leur donnent toutes les consolations qu'elles puissent dans leur désir de soulager ces malheureux, ou d'adoucir leurs derniers moments.

Les sœurs distribuent, après les avoir reçus de l'économie, les vêtements, les aliments, et tous les autres objets nécessaires au service. Elles distribuent aussi les médicaments aux malades, et préparent aux dits magistraux dont la préparation est très-simple, tels que les tisanes, sirops, &c.

Les sœurs sont logées, nourries, blanchies, éclairées, chauffées, et touchent, pour leur vestiaire, une indemnité annuelle, chacune d'environ 200 francs.

Les visites des médecins sont quotidiennes, et ont lieu à des heures fixes. En cas d'urgence, ils reviennent une autre fois dans la journée.

Conditions d'admission.

Lorsqu'un individu privé de ressources tombe malade dans une commune, aucune condition de domicile n'est exigée pour son admission dans l'hôpital.

Les malades et incurables indigents des communes privées d'établissements hospitaliers peuvent être admis aux hospices et hôpitaux du département désignés par le conseil général, sur la proposition du préfet, suivant un prix de journée fixé par le préfet d'accord avec la commission des hospices et hôpitaux. La dépense est à la charge de la commune.

L'admission des indigents malades dans l'hôpital est prononcée par un des membres de la commission administrative, sur l'avis du médecin de l'établissement. Cette admission, hors le cas d'urgence, ne peut être accordée que sur la présentation d'un certificat de l'autorité compétente attestant l'indigence.

Les mères de famille indigentes qui désirent faire leurs couches à l'hôpital peuvent y être admises.

L'admission à l'hospice des vieillards septuagénairés et des indigents incurables ne peut être prononcée que par délibération de la commission administrative.

En ce qui concerne les vieillards valides, les administrations hospitalières ne les admettent qu'avec la plus grande réserve, attendu qu'ils sont moins à charge à eux-mêmes et à leurs familles que les malades incurables, beaucoup plus dignes d'intérêt.

Les orphelins pauvres recueillis dans les hospices sont placés sous la tutelle des commissions administratives qui ne doivent pas se borner à les secourir matériellement, mais encore leur donner

une bonne éducation, morale et professionnelle, et les préparer ainsi à devenir des membres utiles pour la société. — BOULOGNE.

Les malades convalescents sortent de l'hôpital dès que le ^{Sortie de} ^{l'hôpital} ^{pour} ^{la} ^{santé} ^{de} ^{l'} ^{malade} ^{et} ^{l'} ^{soignant} ^{est} ^{satisfaisante}. Quant aux malades reconnus incurables, ils cessent de rester dans l'hôpital, et peuvent dès lors être admis dans l'hospice, s'il y a des lits vacants.

Les enfants trouvés ou abandonnés et les orphelins pauvres restent dans l'hospice depuis l'âge de 12 ans jusqu'à celui de 21 ans, s'ils n'ont pu être mis en apprentissage ou placés en service.

Le nombre des lits de l'hôpital s'élève compris une réserve, en cas de maladie épidémique, à - - - - - 200 lits.

Le nombre des lits de l'hospice s'élève à - - - 147 ,

Total - - - 346 lits.

La moyenne des lits occupés est—

Pour l'hôpital, de - - - 79
Pour l'Institut, de - - - 11

Total 220

Population de l'hôpital.

(Service civil.)

703 malades externes, donnant - 23,379 journées.
 47 malades de l'hospice, donnant - 1,802 ,

Total, 750 malades traités pendant l'année 1870, 25,181 journées.

Moyenne du prix de la journée en 1870, f. 2 16/38.

Terme moyen de la population civile en 1870, 68 98/100.

Moyenne de la durée du séjour à l'hôpital, 33 jours 57/100.

Mortalité, 111 décès ; soit 14 décès 8/10 pour cent

Population de l'hospice.

Le mouvement de cette catégorie d'administrés présente un chiffre de 154 vieillards ou infirmes des deux sexes,—54 hommes et 100 femmes.

**Actuellement, il se trouve dans l'hospice, 45 hommes.
86 femmes.**

Total - 131 vieillards.

Les 154 administrés ci-dessus ont fourni ensemble 47,487 journées, dont 45,832 journées ont été passées dans l'hospice, et 1,655 en état de maladie dans les salles de l'hôpital.

Les vieillards payant pension ou les bénéficiaires de fondation ont donné lieu à un mouvement de 6 admissions :—

**4 hommes, 2 payants, 2 bénéficiaires.
2 femmes.**

Total, 6 personnes, donnant - - 1,633 journées.

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Le mouvement des enfants a été en 1870 de 53 :—

34 garçons, ayant fourni	-	-	3,015 journées.
19 filles	-	-	- 1,512 "

Total, 53 enfants	-	-	-	4,527
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Le nombre des enfants actuellement à l'hospice est de 12 :—

9 garçons et 3 filles.

La moyenne du prix de la journée pour les vieillards, infirmes, pensionnaires, et enfants a été en 1870 de f. 095 42.

Situation financière.

Le total des recettes pour l'année 1870, y compris le reliquat de l'année précédente, s'est élevé à - f. 132,027 02

Le total des dépenses, à	-	-	-	126,114 58
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Ce qui laissait à la fin de l'exercice un excédant de - f. 5,982 44

L'hospice de Boulogne possède, comme ressources propres à son établissement :—

1^o, un revenu annuel de f. 45,482 87 ; savoir, f. 26,406 en rentes sur l'Etat et la commune, et f. 19,076 87 en fermages, loyers, et coupes de bois. Ce revenu provient de legs et donations faits à l'établissement :

2^o, une dotation annuelle de f. 40,500 faite par la ville :

3^o, un sixième dans le produit annuel des concessions de terrains dans les cimetières. Cette recette s'est élevée en 1870 à la somme de f. 8246 25.

Les autres recettes consistent dans le remboursement par l'Etat des journées qui représentent la dépense occasionnée par le séjour dans l'établissement de militaires malades, les journées de personnes malades soignées également à l'hospice sans être dans l'indigence ; les journées de détenus, d'aliénés ; le prix des pensions ; les indemnités accordées pour l'assistance des vieillards aux convois funèbres ; le casuel de la chapelle ; les revenus en nature, &c.

Monts-de-piété.

Une troisième institution, destinée à venir en aide aux classes ouvrières et nécessiteuses, est le Mont-de-piété, qui facilite aux emprunteurs les moyens de se procurer de l'argent contre le nantissement d'objets.

Les monts-de-piété en France sont des établissements publics régis par deux lois principales, celle du 16 pluviôse an XII, et celle du 24 Juin 1851.

D'après la première de ces lois, aucune maison de prêt sur nantissement ne peut être établie qu'au profit des pauvres, et avec l'autorisation du Gouvernement.

Le code pénal, de son côté, édicte des peines contre ceux qui auront établi des maisons de prêt sur gage ou nantissement sans autorisation légale.

On peut objecter contre cette institution qu'elle fait payer assez cher les services qu'elle rend aux personnes qui sont obligées de les réclamer. Mais à cela on répond que si le taux de l'intérêt perçu était minime, on faciliterait des emprunts à des gens qui, n'étant pas nécessiteux, exploiteraient à leur profit la bienfaisance publique. Ce qui enlève d'ailleurs à ces établissements tout caractère de spéculation, c'est que les bénéfices qui en résultent doivent être versés dans les caisses des établissements charitables.

La loi du 24 Juin 1851 détermine de la manière suivante le mode d'administration des monts-de-piété : BOULOGNE.
ADMINISTRATION.

“ Les conseils d’administration sont nommés par le préfet, et doivent être choisis,—

“ Un tiers dans le conseil municipal, un tiers parmi les administrateurs des établissements charitables, un tiers parmi les autres citoyens domiciliés dans la commune.

“ Ils sont renouvelés par tiers chaque année. Les membres sortants sont rééligibles.”

Le directeur, dans les monts-de-piété où cet emploi existe, est nommé par le préfet, sur la présentation du conseil d’administration.

Les monts-de-piété sont, quant aux règles de comptabilité, assimilés aux établissements charitables.

La dotation de chaque mont-de-piété se compose :

1^o, des biens meubles et immeubles affectés à sa fondation et de ceux dont il est ou deviendra propriétaire, notamment par dons et legs :

2^o, des bénéfices et bonis constatés par les inventaires et capitalisés :

3^o, des subventions qui pourront leur être attribuées sur les fonds de la commune, du département, ou de l’Etat.

La ville de Boulogne possède un mont-de-piété autorisé par ordonnance royale du 27 Novembre 1822.

Cet établissement est installé dans un immeuble situé rue du Pot d’Etain, No. 4, et parfaitement approprié à sa destination.

Le conseil d’administration se réunit le 1er Lundi de chaque mois, à 7 heures du soir.

Il se compose de—

MM. le Maire de Saville, président ; Lipsin, vice-président ; T. Brunet, A. Crouy, L. Lemattre, Larché, et Verquère, administrateurs.

Le personnel de l’administration comprend—

MM. L. Bénard, secrétaire du conseil ; Ad. Watbled, directeur ; Tardieu, caissier ; Bourdesoulles, appréciateur ; J. Flour et Fournier, commis.

Les ventes publiques ont lieu une fois par mois, le 1er Jeudi après le 15.

L’administration délègue chaque mois un de ses membres pour surveiller, pendant l’intervalle de ses séances, les parties principales du service dont se compose la gestion intérieure de l’établissement.

Le caissier, le garde-magasin, et l’appréciateur sont, comme le

BOULOGNE. directeur, nommés par le préfet, sur la proposition de l'administration.

Le directeur a sous ses ordres le nombre d'employés qu'exige le besoin du service; ils sont nommés par l'administration, sur la présentation du directeur; leur traitement, ainsi que celui des autres agents, est fixé par l'administration, sous l'approbation du préfet.

Le premier capital destiné aux prêts du mont-de-piété était de f. 60,000, que la ville de Boulogne s'était engagée à verser dans la caisse de l'établissement, en cinq années, avec les intérêts de cette somme et les frais de premier établissement fixés au maximum à f. 5,000.

Depuis, le mont-de-piété a été autorisé à éléver jusqu'à f. 300,000 le chiffre de sa dotation, et à y consacrer ses bénéfices annuels, toutefois moins une somme de f. 6,000, qu'il verse, chaque année, dans la caisse du Bureau de Bienfaisance.

Termes et conditions du prêt.

Les prêts du mont-de-piété sont accordés pour six mois.

L'emprunteur peut néanmoins dégager ses effets avant ce terme, et renouveler l'engagement à l'expiration des 6 mois, qu'il est dit ci-après.

Le taux du prêt à payer par les emprunteurs est fixé à 12%, mais l'administration se propose d'abaisser ce taux à 9% lorsque le chiffre de sa dotation sera élevé à f. 300,000.

Le montant des sommes à prêter est réglé, quant au nantissement en vaisselle ou bijoux d'argent, aux $\frac{4}{5}$ de leur valeur intrinsèque au poids de ces matières en état de vétusté, et, quant à tous autres objets, aux deux tiers du prix de leur estimation.

Renouvellements.

Pour obtenir le renouvellement, l'emprunteur est tenu de payer d'abord les intérêts et droits dus au mont-de-piété, de consentir que le nantissement soit soumis à une nouvelle appréciation, et de ce soumettre, s'il y a lieu, à une réduction sur la somme prêtée.

Ventes des nantissements.

Les effets donnés en nantissement qui, à l'expiration du terme stipulé dans la reconnaissance délivré à l'emprunteur, n'ont pas été dégagés, ou dont l'engagement n'a pas été renouvelé, sont vendus pour le compte de l'administration aux enchères publiques jusqu'à concurrence de la somme qui lui est due, sauf, en cas d'excédant, à en faire étais à l'emprunteur.

Les ventes au mont-de-piété sont annoncées 10 jours d'avance par la voie des journaux et par affiches publiques.

Opérations de 1871.

La dotation de l'établissement s'elevait		
au Janvier /72 à	-	f. 248,561
Elle était l'année précédente de	-	242,544
		<hr/>
Soit une augmentation de	-	6,017

Les prêts faits pendant l'année 1871 ont atteint le chiffre de f. 218,348 pour 32,086 articles, soit une valeur moyenne de f. 6 78 par article. Les renouvellements se sont élevés à f. 251,638 pour 22,342 articles, valeur moyenne f. 11 26.

En réunissant ces deux opérations, on trouve une somme totale de f. 469 986 répartée sur 54,428 articles, d'où il résulte une moyenne de f. 8635 par prêt, ce qui prouve que les monts-de-piété n'avancent en général que de faibles sommes.

La division ci-après rendra cette vérité encore plus frappante :

Prêts de	1 à 5 f.	-	-	34,438	pour f. 108,446
" "	6 à 10	-	-	12,110	" 97,338
" "	11 à 20	-	-	4,857	" 77,621
" "	21 à 50	-	-	2,201	" 78,540
" "	51 à 100	-	-	727	" 37,177
" "	101 à 400	-	-	257	" 50,798
" "	401 à 800	-	-	37	" 18,066
" "	801 et au dessus	-	-	1	" 2,000
Total	-	-	54,428	pour f. 469,986	

En additionnant les trois premières catégories, on trouve qu'à eux seuls les prêts de 1 à f. 20 forment un chiffre de 51,405 sur la somme totale de 54,428.

Voici maintenant par nature de gages, la division des engagements et renouvellements faits dans l'année :

Or et argent	-	8,210 articles pour f. 207,816
Marchandises	-	793 " " 26,177
Linge et hardes	45,425	" " 235,993
Total	-	54,428 articles f. 469,986

Les dégagements faits in 1871 ont atteint le chiffre de f. 212,445, représentés par 31,121 articles d'une valeur moyenne de f. 6 83.

Le produit des ventes effectées pendant la même année s'est élevé à f. 37,134 pour 4,621 objets d'une valeur moyenne de f. 8 03.

Enfin, le nantissement en magasin au 1^{er} Janvier 1872 était de 19,566 articles pour une valeur de f. 201,421, ce qui donne une moyenne de f. 10 29 par article.

Sociétés de secours mutuels.

Les sociétés de secours mutuels n'ont pas seulement pour but de garantir le sociétaire contre les éventualités fâcheuses de la vie, c'est aussi une institution moralisatrice, appelée à faire, en quelque sorte, l'éducation sociale de l'ouvrier.

Une caisse de secours mutuels a été fondée, le 10 Mars 1841, à Boulogne-sur-Mer, dans le but d'assurer des secours aux ouvriers qui en font partie, en cas de maladie ou de blessures.

Les sociétaires sont divisés en deux classes :

- 1^o, celle des sociétaires bienveillants qui renoncent aux secours mentionnés ci-après :
- 2^o, celle des sociétaires ouvriers appelés à jouir de ces secours.

Le conseil d'administration se compose de 13 membres,—un président, un vice-président, un secrétaire, dix membres, dont

BOULOGNE. six nommés parmi les sociétaires bienveillants, et les quatre autres choisis parmi les sociétaires ouvriers.

Depuis l'empire, le gouvernement s'est arrogé le droit de nommer le président; les autres membres du bureau sont nommés par les sociétaires dans une assemblée générale, présidée par le maire, au scrutin secret et à la majorité des voix.

Le conseil est renouvelé par quart tous les ans, par rang d'ancienneté, de manière qu'il y ait lieu de remplacer chaque année deux membres nommés par les sociétaires bienveillants, et un membre choisi par les sociétaires ouvriers.

Les administrateurs sont indéfiniment rééligibles. Leurs fonctions sont gratuites.

Le conseil nomme un trésorier, pris hors de son sein, et qui est rétribué.

Trois médecins sont nommés par le conseil d'administration. Leur traitement est fixé chaque année dans l'une des séances par le conseil même.

Le conseil d'administration traite avec un ou plusieurs pharmaciens pour la fourniture des médicaments aux conditions les plus avantageuses.

Le président, le vice-président, ou l'administrateur de service ordonnance et les mandats qui doivent être visés par le secrétaire.

Le secrétaire est chargé de la rédaction des procès-verbaux des séances de l'administration ainsi que de la correspondance. Il fait connaître la situation de la caisse tous les mois dans les réunions du conseil d'administration, contrôle et surveille les opérations du trésorier. Le trésorier reçoit les dépôts des sociétaires, et paie le montant des secours fixés par l'administrateur de service. Il assiste aux séances du conseil ainsi qu'aux séances du Dimanche.

Les ouvriers de toutes les professions, réunissant les conditions mentionnées ci-dessous, à l'exception des marins, pour lesquels une caisse spéciale a été fondée, pourront être sociétaires.

L'ouvrier qui désire être admis dans la société devra justifier de son âge, qui ne doit pas être moindre de 18 ans ni supérieur à 40; produire, en outre, dans une des séances du Dimanche,—1^o, un certificat du patron chez lequel il travaille, attestant sa moralité et sa bonne conduite; 2^o, un certificat du médecin de la société, attestant qu'il n'est pas atteint de maladies chroniques de nature à faire craindre de fréquentes suspensions de travail, et qu'il est actuellement en bonne santé.

La contribution annuelle des sociétaires bienveillants, comme des sociétaires ouvriers, est de 12 francs. L'année commence à partir du jour de l'inscription sur les contrôles.

Secours. En cas de maladie, il est fourni gratuitement aux sociétaires ouvriers malades:—

1^o, les soins d'un médecin:

2^o, les médicaments qu'il ordonne:

3^o, un secours pécuniaire pour chaque jour de maladie constaté par le médecin. Ce secours sera, pour le premier trimestre, de 1 f.; pour le 2^e trimestre, de 0 f. 75 c.; pour chaque jour en sus, de 0 f. 50 c.

Le secours en argent n'est acquis aux sociétaires ouvriers qu'autant que leur maladie se prolonge au-delà de 2 jours. Il cesse après un an de durée.

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A l'effet de recevoir les versements des sociétaires, et de payer le secours quotidien, les bureaux de la caisse sont ouverts tous les Dimanches depuis 8 heures jusqu'à 10 heures du matin.

Le conseil d'administration est composé comme suit :

Conseil d'ad-
ministration.

MM. Ad. Crouy, président ; Wimet-Ovion, vice-président ; Dulertre-Delmareq, secrétaire ; Hiart, trésorier ; MM. Duprey-Martin, Haffreingue, ainé, Debayser, Lipsin, Ducarnoy-Guche, Mahieu-Gorrée, membres bienveillants ; MM. Durier, Constantin, Couvreur, Cresson, fils, membres ouvriers ; MM. Ovion, Biencourt, Filliette, médecins.

Le nombre des sociétaires bienveillants est actuellement de 122 ; celui des sociétaires participants, de 291.

Pendant l'année 1871, il a été payé pour 85 malades 4003 journées, formant une somme de f. 2870 25 en secours pécuniaires.

La moyenne des journées payées à chaque sociétaire secouru est de 47,009 journ. ; la somme payée de f. 33 79.

Des médicaments et des bains ont été, en outre, fournis aux sociétaires malades. Pendant les deux années, ils se sont élevés à une somme de f. 3392 75, ce qui donne par sociétaire malade, ou plutôt par famille, puisque les femmes, les pères et mères, et les enfants des sociétaires participent aux secours (observation qui s'applique aux indications précédentes), une moyenne de fr. 18 34.

Le nombre des décès s'est élevé pendant l'année 1871 à 6, soit 7.96 pour cent.

Le total des recettes (y compris le reliquat de f. 6970 45 de l'année précédente) s'est élevé à	- - - - -	f. 13470 33
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Celui des dépenses, à	- - - - -	8214 75
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Reste en caisse	- - - - -	f. 5255 58
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La caisse de secours mutuels possède une somme de f. 240 en rentes sur la caisse de retraite pour la vieillesse. Elle vient de décider, dans son assemblée générale du 25 Février 1872, que cette somme, à partir du 1er Avril 1872, serait attribuée à titre de pension, par parts de f. 60, aux quatre plus anciens sociétaires.

Indépendamment de la caisse de secours mutuels pour les ouvriers, il en existe une pour les marins de Boulogne et du Portel, autorisée par décret du 29 Juin 1864.

Caisse de
secours mutuels
pour les
marins.

Elle est administrée par un conseil composé de,— MM. Cyret, commissaire de marine, président; Aug. Huguet, maire de Boulogne, vice-président; Le Deric, trésorier; A. Lefebvre, secrétaire; Bresselle, Deltour, Longuëty, ainé, St. Gest, Fourcroy, Larché, Vidor.

Elle comptait à la fin de 1871, 51 membres honoraires, et 90 membres participants.

BOULOGNE.

Caisse d'épargne.

La caisse d'épargne est une institution d'utilité publique, qui a pour but de fournir aux personnes économies et laborieuses le moyen de placer et de faire fructifier leurs moindres épargnes, de se créer un capital, et de se préparer ainsi des ressources pour l'avenir.

La ville de Boulogne possède une institution de ce genre, qui a été fondée par le conseil municipal en Mai 1834.

La caisse d'épargne de Boulogne est administrée gratuitement par un conseil composé de 15 directeurs, présidé par le maire.

La caisse d'épargne est ouverte le Dimanche de 10 heures à midi pour les dépôts, et de midi à une heure pour les remboursements.

L'intérêt alloué aux déposants est fixé à f. 3 50 p^o.

Il compte à partir du huitième jour après l'époque à laquelle a été versée chaque somme de 1f., de même il cesse de courir huit jours avant le remboursement.

Chaque dépôt est d'un franc au moins, sans fraction de franc, et de 300 fr. au plus par semaine.

Lorsque le capital d'un déposant s'élève à 1000 fr., il doit être ramené au-dessous de ce maximum.

Tout déposant dont le crédit sera de somme suffisante pour acheter une rente de 10 francs au moins, pourra obtenir, sur sa demande, par l'intermédiaire de la caisse et sans frais, une inscription nominative à son profit.

Le capital dû aux déposants était au 24 D^{bre} 1870 de 2,186,797 88, différence en moins sur l'année précédente 316,582 06.

Les versements effectués pendant l'exercice 1870 se sont élevés à f. 559,351 25 ; 1869 avait produit f. 825,073 75 ; c'est une diminution de f. 265,722 50.

Il est bon de remarquer que la réduction du capital ne résulte pas ici de la reduction de la clientelle. Le nombre ses déposants s'est, au contraire, accru ; il y a eu une augmentation de 239 livrets nouveaux, ce qui donne un total de 11,125 comptes au 1er Janvier 1871.

Statistique.

La statistique annuelle de la caisse constate que sur 654 livrets nouveaux, 232 ont été pris pour une somme de f. 44,042 par les ouvriers ; 168 pour f. 21,626 par les enfants mineurs ; 98 pour f. 13,534 par les domestiques femmes ; et 51 pour 13,080 par les marins. Il faut remarquer que les ouvriers, les mineurs, et les domestiques sont toujours en premier dans la série des déposants.

On est heureux de voir la classe ouvrière répondre toujours dans une large mesure au but de l'institution. Les enfants mineurs, qui prennent rang après eux, donnent aussi beaucoup d'espoir pour l'avenir.

Atelier école pour les jeunes marins.

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L'atelier école à l'usage des jeunes marins a pour but de faciliter l'instruction des enfants appelés à suivre l'état de mer, et de les initier en même temps à un travail qui doit plus tard leur permettre de confectionner et d'entretenir eux-mêmes leurs propres filets.

La confection des filets de pêche, par le moyen du lacage à la main, est une industrie d'une certaine importance qu'il était utile de conserver dans la population maritime, non pas tant pour les bénéfices qu'elle procure, que pour les intérêts moraux qui s'y rattachent.

En effet, cette institution facilite l'éducation du jeune marin, et lui procure une rémunération proportionnée à son travail, qui encourage l'enfant et aide quelque peu ses parents. Dans la suite, cette industrie devient un lien de famille ; le père, la mère, les enfants y trouvent le moyen de bien employer le temps et d'en tirer un profit par l'économie qu'ils font de la main d'œuvre.

Des institutions de ce genre sont appelées à rendre de grands services dans les ports du littoral, dans les localités maritimes. Elles habituent de bonne heure l'enfant au travail, et le détournent du vagabondage et des plaisirs toujours dangereux de la rue. Le temps, partagé entre le travail manuel et l'étude, rend plus facile la fréquentation de l'école à cette nature d'enfant à qui le mouvement et l'activité va mieux que la culture de l'esprit.

Trois heures de la journée sont consacrées à l'instruction des enfants qui fréquentent cet établissement, et environ cinq heures au travail. Chaque quinzaine il est dressé un état du travail exécuté, et chaque enfant reçoit le salaire qui lui appartient, sous la retenue d'un cinquième qui est affecté aux besoins de l'œuvre ou à l'encouragement des enfants.

La ville fournit le local de l'atelier, et pourvoit à l'entretien et aux frais de la classe.

Un maître laceur dirige et surveille le travail ; il reçoit un traitement qui est payé au moyen d'une subvention que le Ministre de la Marine veut bien, chaque année, accorder à l'œuvre.

Le nombre d'enfants qui fréquentent cette institution varie suivant l'époque de l'année, les plus âgés servant de mousses dans les bateaux de pêche, à partir du mois de Juillet jusqu'à la fin de Décembre. Pendant le premier semestre de l'année, ils atteignent le chiffre de 80, pour descendre ensuite jusqu'à 30 pendant le second semestre, où il n'y a plus que les plus jeunes enfants.

Cette institution, établie sur d'autres bases, avait déjà fonctionné à Boulogne, à partir de 1816, comme atelier de charité. L'initiative en appartient à une dame Anglaise, Madame Bonham, qui a laissé dans cette ville les meilleurs souvenirs pour les services qu'elle a rendus à la population indigente. Le Bureau de Bienfaisance a pris la suite de l'œuvre lorsque Madame Bonham quitta cette ville, vers 1817, et l'a continuée jusqu'en 1850.

En 1868, l'œuvre a été réorganisée au point de vue des enfants

BOULOGNE. de la classe maritime, et pour leur rendre la fréquentation de l'école plus facile.

Un comité de 26 membres la dirige gratuitement.

M. le maire de la ville en est le président, et M. Ed. Flour le secrétaire.

Grace au concours qu'ils ont reçu de la charité privée, les établissements de bienfaisance ont, depuis plusieurs années, pris en France une extension considérable. Autour des institutions publiques fondées par les communes, les départements, et l'Etat, sont venues se grouper une multitude d'œuvre qui participent de leur organisation, et viennent, dans la mesure de leurs ressources, apporter leur concours au soulagement et à l'amélioration, morale et matérielle, des classes pauvres ou ouvrières.

Société de St. Vincent de Paul.

En première ligne, on peut citer la société de St. Vincent-de-Paul, fondée il y a 40 ans, et qui depuis s'est répandue dans tout le monde chrétien.

Le but de la Société de St. Vincent-de-Paul est de secourir les pauvres moralement et matériellement. Par une suite d'œuvres appropriées à tous les âges de la vie, cette société embrasse toute l'existence humaine. Par l'œuvre de la visite des pauvres à domicile, elle se met en rapport direct avec le malheureux. Mûs par le sentiment de la charité chrétienne, les membres de cette société vont régulièrement visiter le pauvre à son domicile, s'entre tiennent avec lui de ses besoins moraux et matériels, qu'ils s'appliquent à soulager ; s'occupent de ses enfants, encouragent leur conduite et leurs progrès, obtiennent qu'ils fréquentent assidûment les écoles, et, quand ils sont en âge d'apprendre un état, facilitent leur apprentissage, les visitent dans leurs ateliers, et par des avis et des conseils affectueux les aident à devenir des ouvriers honnêtes et laborieux.

Une des branches de la Société de St. Vincent-de-Paul se charge, sous le nom de Société de St. Régis, de tous les Dimanches pour faciliter le mariage civil et religieux des pauvres ; qu'ils arrachent ainsi au concubinage, et font légitimer les enfants issus de leurs unions illicites.

Une conférence de St. Vincent-de-Paul a été fondée à Boulogne en 1842. Elle se compose de 40 à 50 membres ; visite en moyenne une centaine de familles, auxquelles elle distribue du pain, du chauffage, et des vêtements.

Elle s'occupe aussi de la propagation des bons livres, et aide, par tous les moyens en son pouvoir, le pauvre à se relever en le réhabilitant à ses propres yeux.

La conférence de St. Vincent-de-Paul de Boulogne patronne dans les écoles communales des frères environ 200 enfants pauvres, dont elle encourage et récompense l'assiduité, la conduite, et les progrès.

Le nombre des mariages réhabilités chaque année par ses soins est en moyenne de 30. Elle fait aussi légitimer un certain nombre d'enfants.

Le bureau de la conférence de Boulogne se compose de M. G.

Lardeur, président ; MM. G. de Lédinghen et Lipsin, vice-présidents ; MM. Ch. Adam, trésorier, Ed. Flour, secrétaire. BOULOGNE.

Le conférence se réunit en séance tous les Vendredis à 7 h. du soir.

Il y a, en outre, deux associations de dames charitables ; l'une dans la paroisse Notre Dame et St. Joseph, l'autre dans la paroisse St. Nicolas. Associations paroissiales de Dames charitables.

Ces dames visitent et secourent un certain nombre de familles pauvres dans leurs paroisses respectives.

Les secours consistent en pain, charbon, vêtements, &c.

Ces associations charitables ont aussi des réunions hebdomadaires sous les auspices du clergé de leur paroisse.

Il existe encore, sous le nom d' "Œuvre des pauvres malades," dans la paroisse N'otre Dame et St. Joseph, une association de dames charitables, qui visitent les malades pauvres à domicile, et leur portent des consolations et des secours de différentes natures, principalement des douceurs.

En général, les familles secourues par les diverses sociétés charitables indiquées ci-dessus reçoivent également les secours du Bureau de Bienfaisance.

Dans les visites faites chez les pauvres, tant par les sœurs de charité que par les membres des associations charitables, on ne se borne pas à secourir matériellement l'indigent, mais on use de son influence pour obtenir toutes les améliorations possibles dans l'intérêt des familles secourues : à ce père de famille, c'est du travail ou une occupation qu'on procure ; à cet enfant, c'est un atelier ou une fabrique où il peut apprendre une profession, gagner un salaire quelconque. Ici c'est une jeune fille qu'on place en condition chez de bons maîtres ; là, c'est une mère à qui l'on fait obtenir des journées de travail, &c.

Sous le rapport sanitaire, ce sont des conseils dans l'intérêt de la santé. C'est un logement humain, malsain, qu'on engage à quitter parce que la santé du père, de la mère, ou des enfants pourrait en souffrir ; c'est un local qui a besoin d'être badigeonné, et dont l'association ou le visiteur fait les frais. Ces réformes n'échappent pas à l'œil ; et lorsque des causes d'insalubrité se rencontrent, le Bureau de Bienfaisance ou les associations charitables s'empressent de les signaler à la commission municipale, qui a pour objet les logements insalubres. Dans ce cas, le propriétaire est mis en demeure de faire disparaître ces causes, ou de cesser de mettre en location l'habitation reconnue malsaine.

Pour ce qui est de la tempérance, les administrateurs des établissements de bienfaisance, les religieuses attachées à ces établissements, les membres des associations charitables, &c., unissent leurs efforts pour combattre l'ivrognerie, et obtenir que les chefs de famille donnent le bon exemple à leurs enfants. D'un autre côté, la caisse de secours mutuels et la caisse d'épargne contribuent autant qu'elles le peuvent à propager et à mettre en pratique les idées d'ordre, d'économie, et de prévoyance dans la classe ouvrière.

Le clergé n'a aucune action sur les établissements publics de bienfaisance. Quelquefois il arrive qu'un de ses membres est choisi

Boulogne. par l'autorité pour faire partie des commissions administratives, là se borne son intervention.

L'influence des ministres de la religion s'exerce, dans une certaine mesure, sur les associations charitables qui puisent toute leur force dans le sentiment religieux.

Les mendians ne forment pas une catégorie spéciale de pauvres. Comme les autres indigents, ils sont admis à l'hospice en cas de maladie, d'infirmités, ou de vieillesse ; et dans les autres circonstances ils sont secourus par le Bureau de Bienfaisance.

La mendicité étant interdite dans le pays, les individus qui s'obstinent à mendier sont envoyés dans des dépôts de mendicité, sorte d'établissements pénitentiaires, qui sont un intermédiaire entre l'hospice et la prison, et dans lesquels le travail est obligatoire.

Quant aux émigrations d'ouvriers, ils ne sont de la part des établissements de bienfaisance l'objet d'aucun encouragement.

Avant de terminer, nous mentionnerons divers établissements de charité dus à l'initiative privée, et qui concourent, dans la limite du possible, à secourir les vieillards et les orphelins de l'un et l'autre sexe.

1^o. L'Asile des Petites Sœurs des Pauvres, rue de Wicardenne, à Boulogne-sur-Mer, où plus de cent vieillards trouvent le logement, la nourriture, et l'habillement.

Les Petites Sœurs des pauvres vont avec un courage héroïque quête à domicile de quoi nourrir et entretenir leurs pensionnaires.

2^o. Deux orphelinats pour les jeunes filles délaissées ou privées de leurs parents existent également à Boulogne.

Le premier, fondé et dirigé par Mlle. Beaumont, qui a pris l'habit religieux, et a réuni autour d'elle une douzaine de sœurs, prend soin de plus de 80 jeunes filles, qu'elle retire de la misère et des dangers qui en sont la conséquence, pour les former au travail et en faire des ouvrières honnêtes.

Cette œuvre, se soutient au moyen de quelques dons de la charité, d'allocations faites par la ville et le département, et principalement avec le produit du travail des enfants.

Le second orphelinat, fondé et dirigé par les Sœurs de St. Vincent-de-Paul, donne asile à une quarantaine d'orphelines, qui sont élevées dans d'excellentes conditions.

L'œuvre se soutient et prospère au moyen de pensions que des bienfaiteurs ou bienfaitrices paient pour de jeunes protégées ; quelques dons de la charité, et le produit du travail exécuté par les enfants.

Un orphelinat pour les jeunes garçons a été fondé et est dirigé par M. Ed. Flour, rue Désille, 18. Les enfants y sont admis dès l'âge de 7 ans, et restent en général jusqu'à ce qu'ils soient en état de se suffire par le travail.

Outre le logement, la nourriture, et l'habillement, les enfants y reçoivent l'instruction primaire, et l'éducation morale et professionnelle.

A l'âge de 13 à 14 ans, ils quittent l'école pour être placés en apprentissage chez des maîtres de choix ou dans de bons ateliers,

suivant la profession pour laquelle ils témoignent du goût ou de Bouloëze.
l'aptitude.

Cet établissement se soutient au moyen de faibles sommes payées à titre de pension par des bienfaiteurs ou des parents, du produit d'une loterie annuelle, et de quelques secours de la charité. 45 enfants participent aux biensfaits de cette institution.

Société pour l'Extinction de la Mendicité dans la Ville de BREST, par Le Tersec.

BREST.

Comptes rendus, moral et administratif, présentés à l'assemblée générale des Souscripteurs, le 29 Janvier 1871, par Mr. le Tersec, Conseiller Municipal, faisant fonctions d'Adjoint Maire.

COMPTE MORAL.

MESSIEURS,

L'ŒUVRE d'extinction de la mendicité vient d'accomplir la période voulue par vos statuts, pour que vos mandataires se fassent un devoir, en vous remettant les pouvoirs qu'ils tenaient de vos suffrages, de venir vous exposer les résultats obtenus pendant l'année qui vient de s'écouler.

En vous assurant du succès dans l'avenir, il leur a semblé que plusieurs modifications pouvaient être utilement apportées à ces statuts dans le but du fonctionnement plus régulier de votre œuvre, ils auront donc l'honneur de vous les proposer à la fin du court exposé de la situation.

Avant d'entrer en matière, permettez nous, Messieurs les Souscripteurs, de vous adresser au nom de votre ville les remerciements justement mérités pour l'empressement avec lequel, répondant à l'appel de notre premier magistrat, vous l'avez mis à même de jeter les premiers fondements d'une œuvre dont la réussite est telle, que l'on peut dire dès aujourd'hui que la mendicité a disparu de nos murs. Merci également à messieurs les membres du comité qui n'ont cessé de rivaliser d'un zèle infatigable autant qu'éclairé pour se vouer au soulagement de toutes les misères qui leur ont été signalées; mais tout particulièrement, nous sommes heureux d'exprimer ici nos sentiments de gratitude à notre honorable prédécesseur Mr. Villiers qui a réellement doté notre ville de l'œuvre que nous poursuivons aujourd'hui.

A ce sujet, messieurs, nous ne croyons pouvoir mieux faire que de donner un instant la parole à notre honorable secrétaire, Mr. Foucard, qui, dans la réunion du comité du 5 Janvier, s'exprime de la manière suivante au sujet de la retraite regrettable de Mr. Villiers.

“ Servi par une intelligence éclairée non moins que généreuse, puisant des lumières dans des documents presqu'oubliés comme dans ceux d'une date plus récente, Mr. Villiers a le premier, sinon conçu, du moins poursuivi avec une rare persévérance, le dessein de doter Brest d'une institution ayant pour objet l'extinction de

BREST.

la mendicité, institution qu'il avait été à même de voir fonctionner dans d'autres villes avec des avantages incontestables. Voyages, correspondances, discussions, il n'a rien épargné, rien négligé pour parvenir à ce but utile. Il l'a atteint, l'année dernière, avec la juste satisfaction que procurent les actes méritoires laborieusement accomplis.

“ Une telle œuvre doit lui assurer la reconnaissance de ses concitoyens.

“ En s'associant vivement à ces pensées, le comité témoigne combien il eût été heureux de conserver à sa tête son bienveillant président, qu'une erreur involontaire de l'assemblée générale des souscripteurs n'a pas compris au nombre des membres du comité, sans doute parce que sa qualité d'adjoint maire plaçait naturellement Mr. Villiers à sa tête, pour y exercer les fonctions presidenciellest qu'il a remplies pendant onze mois au grand profit de l'œuvre.”

Assistance et répression, telles étaient, messieurs, dans l'ordre nécessaire, les données devant servir de base à la solution du problème de l'extinction de la mendicité. En remplissant par vos souscriptions empressées la première partie de ce programme, vous avez mis l'autorité à même de remplir la seconde, et depuis un an, les mendians ont cessé d'encombrer nos voies publiques; depuis un an, nous n'avons plus sous les yeux, à chaque pas, le triste spectacle de misères souvent trop réelles, parfois exagérées, voire mêmes simulées, dans le but de surprendre la charité publique inépuisable de Brest.

Toutes ces misères ne sont pas cependant restées sans secours, et nous pouvons le dire avec certitude, grâce aux ressources que nos souscriptions ont mises entre les mains de votre comité, toutes ont été soulagées d'une manière plus soutenue, plus efficace, et surtout plus économique.

Plus soutenue, en ce que l'indigent est aujourd'hui à l'abri du besoin et n'a pas à s'inquiéter du lendemain; plus efficace, en ce que le produit de la mendicité dans les rues servait autant à satisfaire le vice et l'ivrognerie qu'à conjurer la faim; plus économique, quelques faits incontestables, puisés dans la statistique, vont vous en donner l'assurance.

Au début de notre œuvre, la mendicité était en voie de décroissance à Brest. Jetons en effet les yeux sur l'excellent ouvrage de Mr. Bizet et nous trouvons en 1846 un mendiant pour 123 habitants; en 1869 ce chiffre est de 1 pour 411. Nous ne comptions cependant pas moins de 150 mendians attirés à Brest, auxquels nous pouvions adjoindre, sans être taxés d'exagération, une centaine d'autres importuns appartenant aux communes voisines, voire même aux départements limitrophes, que l'autorité était le plus souvent impuissante à poursuivre, et qui venaient partager avec leurs frères indigènes l'exploitation de la bienfaisance publique.

Quel était, à la fin de chaque journée, le montant du tribut prélevé sur la population par chacun de ces 250 mendians?

Nous croyons être dans le vrai en l'évaluant à 1 fr. 25 c. en

moyenne et par tête. Pour beaucoup ce chiffre doit être même dépassé, et il suffit pour nous en convaincre, de nous rappeler ces exemples si nombreux et si connus du public : les mendians privilégiés trafiquant de leur clientèle en cédant à prix d'argent la place où ils se tenaient d'habitude, d'autres entièrement valides, préférant cette profession facile à l'exercice de toute autre industrie produisant un gain assuré mais inférieur.

Or, si nous admettons cette moyenne de 1 fr. 25 c., nous arrivons au chiffre de 114,068 fr., reproduisant l'impôt énorme, mais effectif, prélevé par ces collecteurs attitrés, c'est-à-dire une somme égale aux 2/3 du montant réel de la contribution mobilière, qui, dans la ville de Brest, s'élève à 168,772 francs.

Si l'on réfléchit en outre que les pauvres véritables—je veux parler de ceux que les infirmités ou des maladies mettaient hors d'état de travailler,—étaient incapables de lutter d'avidité, de persévérance et d'habileté avec ces êtres dégradés faisant de la mendicité une profession lucrative, on comprendra combien cette concurrence leur était préjudiciable en tarissant le plus souvent à l'avance les sources de la charité.

Telle était la situation au 1er Février 1870. Comment les choses se sont-elles passées depuis cette époque ? Les mendians étrangers frappés par l'arrêté municipal ont disparu ; un petit nombre a repris à regret l'habitude du travail, d'autres sont allés dans des villes plus tolérantes porter leur honteuse industrie, et nous nous sommes naturellement trouvés réduits à un nombre de pauvres en rapport avec nos ressources.

Ces ressources, messieurs, nous vous l'avons dit, ont surtout consisté dans la souscription volontaire que chacun de vous a consentie à la suite des circulaires municipales qui demandaient à la population, sinon l'équivalent, du moins une part des aumônes distribuées sur la voie publique.

Elles se sont élevées pour l'année qui vient de s'écouler à 19,958 francs, somme qui représente un peu plus du sixième de celle de 114,000 francs, perçue annuellement par la mendicité libre sur la population de la ville.

C'est avec cette somme de 19,958 fr., à laquelle est venue se joindre le produit de dons, de collectes, d'aumônes, de manière à donner un total de 24,505 fr. 25 c., que votre comité a pu soulager, outre les misères qui lui ont été signalées au début, toutes celles qui viennent journellement réclamer à juste titre une modeste part dans la répartition des secours mis à sa disposition.

Avons-nous besoin de vous dire que dans cette répartition votre comité a toujours eu pour point de départ la quotité proportionnelle aux besoins les plus indispensables, et seulement comme complément à l'insuffisance du travail de la famille ? Cependant, messieurs, malgré cette stricte économie, les comptes que nous avons l'honneur de soumettre à votre approbation, établissent d'une manière incontestable que si l'œuvre avait été exclusivement réduite aux ressources des souscriptions quinquennales, il ne lui eût pas été possible d'atteindre sans un déficit la fin de cette première année ; les comptes arrêtés au 31 Décembre donnent en

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effet pour chiffre de dépense 19,223 fr. 72 c., auquel il a fallu ajouter comme moyenne mensuelle, pour les dépenses de Janvier, 1,748 fr. environ, ce qui nous donne un total de 20,971 fr. 72 c., inférieur de 1,013 fr. au total de vos souscriptions.

Les dons, collectes, aumônes nous sont fort heureusement venus en aide, et, grâce à ces suppléments dans nos recettes, l'année entière pourra se solder avec un excédant qui permettra au nouveau comité d'entrer en fonctions avec des ressources assurées pour l'année prochaine, à la condition toute fois de ne pas trouver des vides trop nombreux dans nos listes de souscripteurs. Beaucoup d'entre eux sont absents dans le moment pour la défense nationale, et à ceux qui supportent toutes les misères et les privations, nous nous garderont de rappeler qu'ils se sont engagés à soulager ici d'autres misères non moins grandes que les leurs. C'est à ceux qui restent à les remplacer, et nous comptons sur le zèle de chacun de vous, messieurs, pour nous donner de nouveaux adhérents, en secondant les efforts de l'administration dont les circulaires adressées dans le principe à 3,500 personnes n'ont produit que 1,200 souscripteurs, ce qui nous permet d'espérer qu'il y a lieu de tenter un nouvel et fructueux effort.

Nous traversons, messieurs, une époque peu faite pour diminuer le nombre des indigents, et à ceux qui pensent que leur souscription quinquennale sera suffisante pour éteindre la mendicité dans notre ville, nous répondrons que non seulement nous n'avons jamais eu pareil espoir, mais que nous avons la crainte légitime de voir nos ressources actuelles devenir insuffisantes, si vous n'employez tous les moyens pour augmenter le nombre des souscripteurs. Seuls ils peuvent nous permettre de remplir la première partie du programme de l'extinction de la mendicité, l'assistance, sans laquelle la répression, qui en est la seconde partie, ne saurait être mise en pratique.

L'année qui vient de s'écouler nous donne l'assurance, que si la charité a accompli son œuvre en soulageant les misères, de son côté l'administration a tenu ses promesses en poursuivant les scandaleux abus de la mendicité. La répression appliquée comme conséquence naturelle des moyens d'assistance, justifie la création du dépôt de mendicité communal dans lequel sont internés à la fin de leur peine, pour un temps qui varie selon les circonstances, les indigents poursuivis correctionnellement pour délit de mendicité. Depuis sa création, notre dépôt a reçu 100 mendiants de cette nature. Il a de plus donné asile à 5 autres qui ont préféré cette réclusion volontaire à l'assistance à domicile qui leur était offerte.

MODIFICATIONS PROPOSÉES par le COMITÉ aux STATUTS de la SOCIÉTÉ

En commençant ce compte rendu nous vous avons dit, messieurs, que votre comité, instruit par une année d'expérience, voulait en vous remettant le mandat que vous lui aviez confié, vous proposer d'apporter quelques modifications à vos statuts.

La première est relative au paragraph 2 de l'article 4 qui donne

la présidence du comité au maire ou à son délégué. Il a semblé utile d'adjoindre à ce dernier un vice-président nommé dans le sein du comité, afin qu'en cas d'empêchement de l'adjoint délégué, la présidence appartînt de droit à un membre parfaitement au courant de toutes les questions de la société.

Article 5.—Le comité se composera pour la deuxième année :

1^o. Du maire ou de son délégué.

2^o. De vingt membres nommés au scrutin et à la majorité relative par les souscripteurs. En cas de non acceptation de quelques-uns des souscripteurs désignés pour faire partie du comité ou en cas de démission pendant l'année, il sera pourvu à leur remplacement par les souscripteurs qui auront obtenu des voix par ordre de priorité sur la liste.

En portant à vingt au lieu de douze le nombre des membres du comité, nous vous proposons de maintenir en dehors, et comme membres honoraires, les curés des quatré paroisses et le pasteur protestant que leurs occupations toutes spéciales ne mettent pas toujours à même de pouvoir, à jour fixe, faire des visites à domicile pour la répartition des secours. D'un autre côté le nombre des indigents tendant à augmenter, il a semblé nécessaire à votre comité de répartir sur un plus grand nombre de membres les fatigues des visites parfois trop nombreuses.

3^o. De deux membres du conseil municipal désignés par ce conseil.

4^o. De deux membres du bureau de bienfaisance désignés par ce bureau.

5^o. Du receveur du bureau de bienfaisance.

Cette année le comité sera réélu en entier, les membres sortants sont rééligibles. A partir de l'année prochaine, il sera renouvelé chaque année par moitié seulement. Les noms des membres sortants seront tirés au sort dans la séance qui précédera la réunion générale des souscripteurs; ils seront également rééligibles.

Au moment de son installation, le comité se nommera un vice-président et un secrétaire.

Article 6.—Le bureau se composera du maire ou de son délégué, du vice-président, de trois membres pris dans le sein du comité et nommés par lui, et du secrétaire du comité.

Article 7.—Les délégués, que pourra s'adjointre le comité, seront pris autant que possible parmi les souscripteurs qui auront obtenu des voix pour faire partie du comité.

Article 8.—Le comité établit les statuts de l'association et y apporte les modifications que lui suggéré son expérience. Il est donné connaissance de ces statuts et modifications aux souscripteurs par les moyens les moins dispendieux.

Relativement au recouvrement des souscriptions, votre comité n'a cru devoir apporter aux statuts, que deux légères additions, la première à l'article 10 ainsi conçu :

Ces états seront remis par les soins du secrétaire du comité au trésorier de l'association. Ils seront dressés à la mairie.

Eusin, à l'article 12, votre comité a cru devoir réservé les cas ou des avis seraient adressés aux souscripteurs pour leur rappeler

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leurs engagements, dans le cas où ils mettraient peu d'impressionnement à les remplir.

Il vous propose donc de commencer cet article par ces mots : S'il en est besoin. Le comité a encore manifesté le désir de voir centraliser la distribution des secours, sans pour cela diminuer les visites à domicile.

Seulement, tandis que celles-ci pourraient se faire à la volonté des membres agissants, sans fixation de jour ni d'heure, ce qui leur permettrait souvent de juger beaucoup mieux de la situation réelle d'une famille dans laquelle ils se présenteraient inopinément, les secours qui ne peuvent se faire attendre puisqu'ils sont une condition d'existence seraient à heure et à jour fixes distribués dans chacune de nos écoles communales. En multipliant les lieux de distribution, on éviterait le grand inconveniit d'une grande agglomération de mendiants sur un seul point de la ville.

Brest, le 12 Fevrier 1871.

Le Président,
(Signé) LE TERSEC.

BELGIUM.

Report on Poor Laws and Pauperism in BELGIUM, by Sir Henry P. T. Barron, Bart., Secretary of Legation, Brussels.

Belgium the
classic land of
pauperism.

No poor law
returns for the
kingdom since
1858.

Brussels, 27th December 1872.

1. BELGIUM has now been for centuries a classic land of pauperism. There is consequently no scarcity of works bearing on this matter; but there are *no published poor law returns for the whole Kingdom down to a later date than 1858*. It cannot therefore be stated positively from official figures whether pauperism is increasing or diminishing. The standard authority on the subject, "Des Institutions de Bien-
"faisance et de Prévoyance en Belgique, 1850 à 1860, par M. P. Lentz,
"Directeur des Cultes et des Etablissements de Bienfaisance," only brings the history down to 1858. Through the obliging assistance of that gentleman, I am now enabled to present some recent original and authentic information. From his official position he could not, however, be expected to pass judgment upon the legislation of his country. I am alone responsible for the judgments here expressed, and for the conclusions deduced from the mass of facts here collected. This report will be divided into nine sections, strictly corresponding to the nine queries propounded in Earl Granville's Circular of 23rd October 1871.

SECTION I.

The nature of the legal provision for the support of the poor, the extent to which that provision is supplemented by charitable

organization, and the legal obligation imposed upon persons to maintain their own relatives. BELGIUM.

2. *There is no poor rate in Belgium.* The legal provision for the support of the poor consists of the donations of the public vested in and administered by civil authorities. In case of need, additional funds are contributed by the Commune, the Province, and the State. It is not, therefore, the public funds which are supplemented by charity, but the charitable funds which have to be supplemented by the taxpayers.

3. According to the laws of the year V. [1796], which exonerated the State from the burden of poor relief, *that burden was thrown upon private charity*, and that charity was stimulated, husbanded, and regulated by the State. Then were created the "Bureaux de Bienfaisance" and the "Commissions des Hospices Civils," which still subsist upon their original footing. The Civil Code regulates the co-operation of private individuals in the service of charity by confirming the ancient principle that donations or bequests in favour of public institutions, in order to be valid, must be authorised by a decree of the Sovereign. The Communal Law of 1836 however grants to the Permanent Deputations of each Province the right of pronouncing on the acceptance of donations beneath the value of 3,000 francs. There is a constant flow of donations and bequests, which, with the proceeds of former endowments, is in most Communes sufficient for the relief of the poor. Bureaux de Bienfaisance and Commissions des Hospices Civils.

4. *The two classes of institutions for the relief of the poor*, viz., Their revenues. the "Hospices Civils" and the "Bureaux de Bienfaisance" have each of them revenues of its own. These revenues are derived from the following sources :

1. The property specially assigned to them by the law of 20 Ventôse, An V. and by an Arrêté of 27 Prairial An IX. This property was that which belonged anciently to the hospitals and charitable institutions of every kind before the Revolution.
 2. That which they may have since acquired.
 3. Annual donations and bequests which they are authorised to accept.
 4. The quota assigned to them of certain judicial fines and confiscations.
 5. The quota assigned to them of the tax on public amusements.
 6. Sums allotted to them by the Common Councils.
 7. The proceeds of certain collections and poor boxes.
 8. In some Communes the profits of the Mont-de-Piété or communal pawn-broking establishment.
 9. Lotteries are also allowed with certain restrictions for pious and benevolent purposes.
- One only of these revenues, the fifth, is properly to be called a tax.

* In this report the word "Hospices" is used in the official generic sense, meaning the aggregate charitable institutions for accommodating the poor under their roof. The word "Bureau" is used to designate the "Bureau de Bienfaisance," the institution for giving relief to the poor at their own homes.

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Its imposition, however, being left to the option of the Communes themselves, it is now extinct save in a very few Communes.

Maintenance by relatives.

5. The Civil Code, Art. 208, &c., enacts that *every person owes alimony to his parents, his children, his father-in-law, his mother-in-law, his sons and daughters-in-law*. This alimony is to be commensurate with "the wants of the party requiring it, and with the fortune of the person "who has to provide it." A pauper, therefore, has a first claim on those who may stand to him in one of the above relations. In default of such relatives he may seek relief from the Bureau de Bienfaisance of his own Commune. *If the bureau refuses to relieve him, he has no legal claim on any one.* He may, however, exercise a certain compulsion on his Commune by resorting to begging, which involves a sentence of reclusion in a Dépôt de Mendicité at the expense of his Commune. This expense is not borne by the Bureau de Bienfaisance, but by the Communal Treasury.

No right to relief.**SECTION II.**

The principles upon which such provision is founded, and the mode in which any tax or contribution for that purpose is levied.

6. The legislation on this matter is founded on the following main principles :

Principles of the law with respect to charitable endowments.

The law *founds* those institutions which are required for the public benefit, and gives them the capacity of receiving donations and bequests, on condition of each donation being specially sanctioned ;

A private individual may give to these institutions, may attach certain conditions to his donations, may even build, create, and endow new institutions under the management of the civil commissions, *but cannot properly speaking found any such institution*, in the sense of giving to it a separate civil personification. He may found one or more beds in a hospital, reserving to himself and his heirs the right of presentation. He may build a hospital, reserving to himself and his heirs the right of assisting with a deliberative voice at the meetings of the Commission des Hospices. He cannot attach to his donation any condition which would pervert the legal organization, objects, and powers of the governing body. Any such condition is treated as null and void.

Object of the law to provide for the poor by a special fund not compulsorily levied.

7. In localizing charity the *object of the law was, not to make it a debt of the Commune, but to secure a provision for the poor by a separate fund*, chiefly derived from the benevolence of individuals, which should be the absolute property of the poor through the medium of official trustees. By the laws of the An V. the communal authorities are charged with the supervision of the patrimony of the poor, and are made interested in its good management. This was the bearing especially of the law of 11 Frimaire An V., which provided that for the present the sums necessary for making up any deficiency in either branch of the charitable administration should be provided by the Communal Treasuries. This principle of the contribution of the Commune, at first introduced only as a temporary measure, has had to be retained ever since. The Communes are thus brought in their own

interest to take every possible means or preventing indigence and mendicity. This obligation cannot degenerate into a regular poor-rate, but is left entirely contingent on the resources which may be available.

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8. There are *certain charges* which, in case of the insufficiency of charitable endowments, *must be borne by the Communal Treasury*; viz., the support of pauper lunatics; the support of paupers in dépôts and hospices; a certain quota of the expenditure on blind, deaf-and-dumb, and foundlings. The Province is bound to contribute a part of this and even the whole expenditure, when it is proved that the revenues of any Commune are insufficient for the purpose. No law throws any of these charges on the State. Nevertheless, the Government advances most of the expenses of the reformatories, and contributes annual subsidies to various "hospices," which are generally applied to the erection of buildings. The State is liable only for the support of beggars and vagrants who may be aliens or of unknown domicile.

Charges on
the Communal
Treasury.

9. *A pauper whether infirm or able-bodied has no formal right to public relief*; the relief of the poor is recognized, however, as a duty of the charitable boards, and of the Communes within the measure of their resources, which duty can be enforced by the provincial authorities. The Commune which relieves a stranger is entitled of course to claim repayment from his Commune if he is a Belgian, and from the State if he is an alien.

No pauper has
any formal
right to public
relief.

10. According to the laws of 1795, the poor form a single collective body, represented by one or two boards, each within the limits of its attributions, all private administrators or distributors being excluded. The arrêtés of 1802, 1804, and 1806 modified this régime by admitting a certain intervention of private individuals. Under the Empire, *some foundations were even authorized exceptionally with special separate administrators*, which foundations still exist, such as the Hospice of Harscamp at Namur and another at Gozée. A law was passed on 3rd June 1859 to clear up some doubts as to the legal status of these institutions. Thus 22 asylums with private administrators have come into existence between 1805 and 1847, and are now recognized; but no others are now allowed to be created on such a basis. The decree of 1806 is, however, still recognized as valid, which provides that founders of hospitals, who shall have reserved to themselves the right of concurring in the management and of assisting with a deliberative voice at the sittings of the administrative commission, shall continue to enjoy this right for themselves and their heirs. This point was set at rest by a general instruction of the Ministry of Justice of 10th April 1849, which recognized this privilege accorded to founders of hospitals as well as of beds in hospitals, and to their heirs.

Exclusion of
private adminis-
trators or dis-
tributors from
public boards
with certain
modifications.

11. Charity is also exhibited very widely in another form, viz., that of *voluntary associations for assisting the poor* in various modes. The Constitution recognizes this right without restriction. Consequently, the numerous charitable societies which exist require no official sanction, and are unknown to the Government. The most important are those of St. Vincent de Paul and of the Freemasons. These societies having no legal status or civil personification cannot hold property, and can

Voluntary
charity.

BELGIUM. have no real stability, as they depend for their existence on the free consent of their members for the time being. They exist in great numbers, and do much good. All data, however, as to their numbers and resources are absolutely wanting.

SECTION III.

The body or persons by whom the funds for the maintenance and support of the poor are administered, and in what manner they are elected or appointed.

Institutions for the relief of the poor.

12. The institutions for the relief of the poor are divided into two classes :—

1. *Hospices and hospitals.*
2. *Bureaux de Bienfaisance.*

Hospices.

"Hospices" is a generic term, comprising both hospitals and asylums ; but in its narrower sense it comprises only asylums for lunatics, blind, deaf-and-dumb, foundlings, orphans, &c., in short, for all paupers who require support rather than medical treatment. This distinction is not admitted in administrative language. The law of 15 Vendémiaire An V., which created the present system, gives the name of "hospices civils" to all establishments where the poor are accommodated. That law placed them in possession of all the ancient charitable endowments. Thus the "Hospices" where they exist have their own separate property and budget in each Commune. The law prescribes that a bureau de bienfaisance shall be established in every Commune for the relief of the poor at their own homes. This provision is generally obeyed, even in those Communes (numbering in 1856, 224) which possess no revenue for the poor. In 17 only of these, the bureau had not been instituted. Among 2,531 Communes there were 2,514 which possessed bureaux, but only 174 which possessed hospices.

Their administration.

13. Conformably to the law of 16 Vendémiaire and to the Communal Law of 1836, the hospices of each Commune are administered by a commission composed of five members elected by the Common Council, and renewed annually one by one. The Commission names its own Vice-President (the bourgmestre being President ex officio) and Secretary. The college of the Bourgmestre and Aldermen has the immediate supervision of the hospices. The Commission is exclusively charged with the management of the hospice property, with the internal administration of the hospices, with the appointment of physicians, surgeons, and servants, with the admission and dismissal of paupers. It has to give a summary account every three months to the Common Council of everything concerning the sale or purchase of property, loans, cutting of timber, investment of funds, demolition or enlargement of buildings, donations and bequests.

Their accounts.

14. The annual Budget and accounts are submitted to the approval of the Common Council, and by it to the Provincial Deputation Permanente in order to be definitively approved. The internal regulations of each hospice are drawn up by the Commission and submitted to the sanction of the Council. The governor of the Province has a right to

inspect the hospices at any time, and to make any complaint if necessary to the Permanent Deputation or to the King. The hospices are in the department of the Minister of Justice, who corresponds with them through the medium of the permanent deputation of the Province.

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15. The Bureau de Bienfaisance is also always composed of five members elected by the Common Council from among the denizens of the Commune. One of the five seats is filled up annually, but the outgoing member is re-eligible if he be duly qualified, the law providing especially that one shall not be connected by consanguinity with any other member. The clergy is not disqualified, and holds at least one seat in about half the number of bureaux as well as of the hospices. These two boards, where they exist, form separate administrations, though they may be composed of the same members. The Province of Brabant forms an exception to this rule, for on the first organization of the Dyle Department, the two administrations were and still remain united under the title of "Commissions des Hospices et secours." This applies of course only to the three towns which possess hospices in this Province, viz., Brussels, Louvain, and Nivelles. The same anomaly occurs in the town of Hasselt. Nevertheless the property and accounts of the two branches are kept entirely separate.

16. *The members of both boards are appointed by the Common Council* How appointed. by selection from two lists of candidates, one presented by the board itself, the other by the College of Bourgmestre and Aldermen. The members may be dismissed by the "Deputation Permanente" of the Province at the instance of the board itself or of the Common Council. Both boards are under the immediate supervision of the college. The bourgmestre presides their meetings whenever he pleases, but only with a deliberative voice. Each board appoints its own Vice-President, as also a "receveur" and "ordonnateur," who are responsible for the financial administration. The functions of members are essentially honorary. The receveur may be paid, but in many cases acts gratuitously.

17. *Every Commune is bound by law to establish a Bureau de Bienfaisance.* Every Commune bound to appoint a Bureau de Bienfaisance. The main duty of this body is to draw up a list of paupers requiring relief, and to distribute relief to them at their own houses. The wants of the paupers are examined into, and the distribution is made by the members of the bureau itself or their delegates, or in towns by committees of charity. Where the agglomerated population of a Commune exceeds 2,000 souls, the Communal Law prescribes the formation of committees of charity. These distributors of relief are generally designated as "maîtres des pauvres." The bureau appoints physicians, surgeons, and accoucheurs to attend the poor, and pay for the medicine supplied. Besides its duty of relieving distress, the bureau is also bound by law to contribute to the education of poor children. This is an obligation which is seldom enforced in practice. In theory all charges for the poor should be defrayed by the bureau in the first instance, the Commune making good any deficiency in its funds by means of a subsidy. But in practice it is found that the bureaux have seldom enough funds for their primary object of domiciliary relief in the locality itself. Consequently, to save complication of accounts, it is

BELGIUM. almost always the Commune itself which pays directly the expenses of its own paupers supported in the hospitals, asylums, and dépôts of other Communes.

SECTION IV.

The annual amount of the funds raised and expended, and the number of paupers relieved, distinguishing as far as practicable the able-bodied from the aged and infirm and from children, and showing also the proportion of paupers numerically to population.

Numbers of paupers inscribed and relieved in Belgium from 1844 to 1851.

18. The following is a statement of the numbers of paupers inscribed and relieved in the kingdom of Belgium during the following years.

Years.	Paupers.		Years.	Paupers.	
	Inscribed.	Relieved.		Inscribed.	Relieved.
1844 -	612,676	594,640	1852 -	699,503	681,704
1845 -	667,297	651,513	1853 -	721,734	706,869
1846 -	753,562	735,816	1854 -	742,370	728,251
1847 -	790,798	779,973	1855 -	772,190	759,184
1848 -	754,201	741,189	1856 -	732,902	718,383
1849 -	736,684	719,088	1857 -	696,478	676,877
1850 -	723,356	702,884	1858 -	682,988	662,587
1851 -	698,410	680,917	1868 -	—	550,000

Pauperism in 1847.

Inscribed or registered pauperism.

19. Pauperism seems to have attained its climax in the year 1847, when the numbers inscribed amounted to 17 per cent. of the population (4,530,228), and to have slowly abated since that time, with a slight relapse in 1855. In that year it was estimated that *40 per cent. of the working class were registered paupers.* A working man once inscribed on this list seldom rises again to independence. He accepts this species of tutelage at first from necessity, then from habit. Every public calamity swells these lists materially; abundance and prosperity have little or no effect in reducing them. Inscription is not always a test of confirmed indigence. It is not governed by any fixed rules, and indicates rather the extent of the resources available than of the poverty observable in each Commune. By attaching certain advantages to the quality of "indigent," such as the gratuitous delivery of passports and other papers, gratuitous legal and medical advice, and gratuitous schooling, an encouragement is given to the inscription of poor families. Thus honest workmen who earn enough for their ordinary wants are often obliged to solicit the assistance of the bureaux to tide over some temporary distress, and remain on the list for life. It is also found that in every instance pauperism increases in proportion to the funds

provided for its relief, and that the richest provinces are those which have the largest numbers of paupers.

20. Statement showing the area, population, numbers of paupers, and expenditure of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance in the nine provinces of Belgium in the years 1858 and 1868 :

Population,
pauperism, and
expenditure of
the Belgian
provinces.

Provinces.	Area. sq. kilom.	Population.		Paupers relieved.		Expenditure, Frs.	
		1858.	per sq. kil.	1858.	1868.	1858.	1868.
Antwerp	2,832	473,167	167	25,362	37,278	630,270	1,146,319
Brabant	3,233	819,132	249	143,464	143,565	1,935,692	2,278,694
W. Flanders	3,234	639,643	198	113,385	74,056	1,509,402	2,004,775
E. Flanders	3,000	801,859	294	124,854	96,848	2,088,724	1,777,073
Hainaut	3,722	846,146	228	136,537	77,628	1,715,066	1,612,202
Liège	2,894	557,549	193	45,151	60,797	938,318	897,973
Limbourg	2,412	195,850	81	35,418	32,043	523,953	587,799
Luxembourg	4,418	196,166	45	5,274	4,858	90,174	68,952
Namur	3,660	299,806	82	33,642	*23,427	289,093	*300,000
The Kingdom	29,455	4,829,320	164	662,587	550,000	9,720,785	10,673,792
Amounts in English measures and £ sterling.	11,349	—	425	—	—	388,830	426,941

* These returns for Namur are only approximative.

21. I have reason to know that this large decrease of the numbers Defects in relieved is entirely fictitious. It would seem from this table that the statistics. numbers of paupers relieved had diminished in a very large proportion during the decennial period here reviewed ; but such is not the case. The ratio of paupers relieved to the population was 11·4 per cent. in 1868. The numbers of paupers registered would be still greater. The expenses incurred by their relief amounted to 1s. 9½d. per head of the population, and to 15s. 6d. for every pauper relieved. These figures are of course irrespective of the paupers relieved in the numerous hospices, and of those relieved solely by private charity. The most interesting feature in this table is the comparative exemption from pauperism of Luxembourg, which is the poorest province, with a sparse population and no manufactures.

22. The ordinary revenue and expenditure of the bureaux have been Revenue and expenditure of the bureaux.

been :—

For the years :—

		Revenue.	Expenditure.
1858	- - -	Fr. 6,178,496	Fr. 7,428,443
1868	- - -	{ Fr. 8,500,000 £840,000	Fr. 10,673,792 £426,951

The returns of this latter year are for the province of Namur only approximative. There is no doubt but that the expenditure is fast increasing, although the amount of pauperism would seem to be decreasing. This apparent improvement is, however, solely due to a more accurate method of counting. The numbers relieved are really

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Number of paupers relieved by the bureaux and their classification.

on the increase. The ordinary revenues of the bureaux may be estimated at from 8 to 9,000,000 francs; the expenditure at from 10 to 11,000,000. The deficiency is made up by subventions from the communal treasuries and by gifts from private individuals. The number of paupers relieved by the bureaux amounted in—

1858 to 662,587, or 13 per cent. of population.

1868 to 550,000, or 11·4 " "

In this latter number—

37 per cent. were able-bodied,

28 infirm,

35 children.

If 15 per cent. be deducted from the expenditure for administrative expenses, the average annual dole coming to each recipient would have been in 1858 only nine francs, in 1868 16·50 francs (13s. 1d.) per head.

23. The ordinary revenues of the hospices may be estimated at from 7 to 8 millions, their expenditure at about the latter sum. The accounts of these institutions are not published, but official information which I have received enables me to present the following table as a sufficiently accurate average statement of their expenditure, together with that of the bureaux :—

Table of the average expenditure of the hospices and bureaux.

	Average Population.	Average Cost.		Total Expense.	Expenditure borne by	
		Per Day.	Per Annum.		The Hospices.	The Communes assisted by Provinces and State.
Bureaux de bienfaisance -	55,000	Fr.	Fr.	10,760,000	—	760,000
Reformatories - -	750	0·60	220	180,000	80,000	100,000
Dépôts de mendicité. { Able-bodied Infirm -	1,500 1,000	0·60 0·85	220 310	300,000 310,000	— 200,000	300,000 110,000
Lunatics - - -	4,000	1·	365	1,460,000	1,140,000	320,000
Deaf-and-dumb, blind -	300	—	400	120,000	—	120,000
Foundlings - -	1,500	—	100	150,000	—	150,000
Almshouses, hospitals, asylums, abandoned children -	12,000	1·50	550	6,600,000	6,000,000	—
Communes, various relief -	—	—	—	140,000	—	140,000
Total - - -	571,050	—	—	20,000,000	8,000,000	2,000,000

24. Statement of the aggregate receipts, extraordinary and ordinary, of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance, under all [32] different heads :

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Table of the
receipts of the
bureaux for
1850 and 1858.

Revenue.	1850.	1858.
	Fr.	Fr.
Balances of preceding year - - - - -	1,618,567	2,001,412
Loans - - - - -	36,078	18,085
Repayment of capital - - - - -	1,280,779	1,335,729
Proceeds of sales of property - - - - -	127,345	319,767
Do. extraordinary cuttings of timber - - - - -	55,778	77,648
Donations and bequests - - - - -	139,238	168,625
Subscriptions, lotteries, festivals - - - - -	60,915	42,761
Concessions in cemeteries - - - - -	9,304	11,898
Subsidies of the province - - - - -	4,017	10,143
Do. communes - - - - -	1,481,399	1,290,145
Do. State - - - - -	54,355	5,997
Other extraordinary and unforeseen receipts - - - - -	328,564	235,511
Maintenance of foundlings ; quota of province - - - - -	828	1,559
Relief to paupers, repaid by the Domicile de Secours - - - - -	38,595	79,656
Do. do. by the Government - - - - -	1,329	14,389
Miscellaneous - - - - -	154,213	165,617
 Total Extraordinary - - - - -	 5,391,298	 5,773,937
 Rents of houses - - - - -	 99,756	 203,082
Do. of lands in money - - - - -	3,089,580	3,466,205
Do. in kind - - - - -	129,270	136,728
Profits of farming, sales of grass, &c. - - - - -	76,658	124,283
Thinnings of woods - - - - -	65,471	60,784
Rentcharges in money - - - - -	442,621	381,149
Do. in kind - - - - -	180,509	139,441
Annuities payable by the State - - - - -	271,929	770,741
Do. do. by the provinces - - - - -	37,040	37,861
Do. do. by the communes - - - - -	193,507	235,309
Do. do. by individuals - - - - -	374,175	289,473
Interest of capital invested in the Monts-de-Piété - - - - -	125,536	48,956
Do. do. Savings Banks - - - - -	98,875	57,554
Poor rate levied on theatres - - - - -	32,828	37,865
Fines and confiscations - - - - -	5,800	3,902
Collections and poor boxes - - - - -	152,585	141,401
Profits of workshops - - - - -	7,415	4,792
Sundries - - - - -	137,451	39,070
 Total Revenue - - - - -	 10,856,404	 11,952,483
 Of which, ordinary revenue was - - - - -	 5,465,106	 6,178,496
Which reduced to - - - - £ St.	218,604	247,137

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Table of the
expenditure of
the bureaux
for 1850 and
1858.

25. Statement of the aggregate expenditure, extraordinary and ordinary, of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance, under all [46] different heads:

Heads of Expenditure.	1850.	1858.	
	Fr.	Fr.	
Balances due on preceding year	178,703	97,165	
Repayment of loans	35,707	26,762	
Purchase of real property	57,407	21,210	
Re-investment of capital	1,612,369	1,637,220	
Investments from surplus revenue	67,527	107,752	
Building ; repairs charged to capital ; planting	75,688	129,320	
Law costs	14,601	10,638	
Other extraordinary expenses	340,955	262,275	
Total Extraordinary	2,382,957	2,292,342	
Office expenses	48,048	54,769	
Salaries of officials	49,433	90,414	
Do. receveur	183,284	218,856	
Fees of physicians, surgeons, midwives	269,526	322,720	
Do. apothecaries	22,355	32,761	
Do. schoolmasters	27,613	26,572	
Wages of overseers and servants	14,698	17,751	
Care takers of property and wood rangers	17,279	18,147	
Farming expenses	27,851	35,330	
Taxes	62,981	72,458	
Fire insurance	5,603	6,640	
Interest of capital borrowed	8,674	7,828	
Rentcharges on lands	29,547	25,965	
Endowments for religious services	147,039	164,944	
Other charges and debts	83,358	74,479	
Relief in money	1,689,862	1,819,602	
Do. food	1,149,606	1,111,082	
Do. coal	186,578	220,263	
Do. clothes to school children	42,975	41,717	
Do. do. on first communion	66,892	113,807	
Do. clothes and bedding	341,645	297,267	
Medicine	263,257	206,801	
Herniary bandages	11,920	17,846	
Burials, coffins	72,626	73,181	
Rent of houses and rooms	271,956	266,616	
Do. land	6,844	8,795	
Tools and materials for work	8,486	11,296	
School fees	214,680	240,372	
Monthly nurses ; board of foundlings	101,918	130,898	
Board of paupers	845,890	897,485	
Support and relief of paupers chargeable to the commune, repaid.	to the dépôts and reformatories to the hospices and hospitals to private asylums to deaf-and-dumb institutes and blind asylums to lunatic asylums for domiciliary relief	27,329	44,855
		85,430	97,646
		46,981	36,953
		3,796	4,971
Subventions to private charitable societies		41,676	67,715
Miscellaneous expenses		80,100	98,890
Gross total expenditure	9,229,518	9,720,785	
Of which the ordinary expenditure was	6,846,561	7,428,443	
Which reduced =	£ St.	273,862	297,187

26. The following table gives the official letting value [*revenu cadastral*] of the property in lands and houses held by both classes of Charitable Boards in 1856. Values in francs.

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Table of the rental of property belonging to the bureaux and hospices for 1856.

PROVINCES.	Bureaux de Bienfais.		Hospices.	
	Lands.	Houses.	Lands.	Houses.
Antwerp	156,972	22,427	165,198	54,253
Brabant	568,853	16,800	513,262	61,722
Hainaut	443,097	60,397	454,864	52,644
W. Flanders	390,544	24,881	346,155	67,779
E. Flanders	385,959	11,291	355,295	31,744
Liège	124,553	3,018	118,074	18,491
Limbourg	173,485	3,170	97,096	3,142
Luxembourg	4,206	60	1,841	391
Namur	24,540	658	26,026	4,062
The Kingdom	2,272,212	142,198	2,077,816	294,228
Aggregate Revenue	Francs 4,786,456	=	£191,458	

27. The same peculiarity as was noted above [§ 20.] concerning the province of Luxembourg again appears in this table. It seems to have next to no revenue for the poor ; yet no complaints of dearth and distress ever come from that quarter. The gross *value of gifts and bequests authorized to be accepted by the charitable institutions* was estimated at the following average annual amounts during the following periods :—

	Fr.	£	
From 1831 to 1850	911,700	=	36,468
,, 1851 , , 1860	2,206,789	=	88,268

Of these amounts nearly one half was in lands and houses, the remainder in money, stocks, lands, and annuities.

Peculiarity of the province of Luxembourg.
Value of gifts and bequests authorized to be accepted by the charitable institutions from 1831 to 1860.

BELGIUM.

Table of number of paupers relieved by the bureaux in 1850 and 1858.

28. The following is a statement of the numbers of paupers registered and relieved by the Bureaux de Bienfaisance in the two following years :—

—	1850.	1858.
Numbers of { families registered persons composing those families	168,111 723,356	159,528 682,988
Paupers relieved directly by the Bureaux, or boarded out or supported in various institutions.	Aged, infirm, incurable Foundlings Lunatics : Deaf-and-Dumb Blind Beggars sent to the depots or reformatories	16,805 2,435 765 1,049 462,580 218,852
Relieved at home.	Habitually and permanently Casually	942 754 429,430 212,790 704
Unenumerated	898	
TOTAL	702,884	662,587

Expenditure in the city of Brussels in 1871 and 1872.

29. As illustrating the working of the Belgian system, I now proceed to give some particulars concerning the charitable expenditure of the principal commune in the kingdom, the city of Brussels. The following table shows the estimated expenditure of the "Conseil Général des Hospices et Secours" under its two sections, and that of the town council, for the two following years. It will be seen that, notwithstanding the large property vested in the official board, the city is obliged to contribute subsidies of 12,000*l.* per annum towards the relief of the poor, in various shapes, from the communal taxes.

—	1871.	1872.	
Hospices and Hospitals.	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.
General budget	1,895,048	—	1,450,038
Foundling Hospital	203,339	—	216,343
Blind Asylum	34,430	1,632,817	32,600
Budget of the Bienfaisance	—	639,942	—
Credits granted by the Town Council for charitable purposes	—	821,195	—
TOTAL official charitable expenditure in Brussels	Fr.	—	301,195
Which reduced = & St.	—	2,593,954	—
		103,758	—
		—	111,097

30. The following is a detailed account of the actual expenditure of the Conseil Général des Hospices et Secours of Brussels, under the section of Bienfaisance, for the year 1870 :—

BELGIUM.
Details of
expenditure in
1870.

Chapters.	Fr.	Fr.
I.—Mortgage interest, rentcharges, taxes, repairs, insurance	—	8,019
II.—General expenses of the Committees of Charity : rents, taxes, salaries, furniture	—	26,091
III.—Distribution of relief in execution of special legacies	—	10,460
<i>IV.—Succours dispensed by Central Board:</i>		
A.—Board of children supported by the Bienfaisance	41,213	
B.—Clothing of do.	14,725	
C.—Board of six children in Ixelles Hospice	1,423	
D.—Board of pauper lunatics at Gheel	4,497	
E.—Monthly allowances to old pensioners	76,523	
F.—Bandages and coffins	5,241	
G.—Medicine	23,005	
H.—Repayment of succours advanced to Bruxellois in other communes	9,586	
I.—Repayment of succours advanced by the Committees of Charity to foreign paupers	41,182	
K.—Subsidy to the infant schools	1,000	
L.—Sundry unforeseen expenditure	4,061	
M.—Lying-in expenses of paupers at their homes	2,452	
Total of Chapter IV.	—	224,862
<i>V.—Succours dispensed by the Committees of Charity:</i>		
A.—Relief in money	23,107	
B.—Do. in bread	105,975	
C.—Do. in clothes and bedding	49,817	
D.—Do. in fuel	15,557	
Total of Chapter V.	—	194,437
<i>VI.—Expenses of the general administration, including expenses of collection and office expenses, &c.</i>	—	36,759
<i>VII.—Reserve for calamitous years</i>	—	11,285
<i>VIII.—Sundry alms to the poor</i>	—	19,549
TOTAL	—	581,485
Which reduced = £ St.	—	21,259

BELGIUM.
Amounts voted
in 1872 and
1873 by the
Common Coun-
cil to Public
Charity.

31. Statement of the credits voted by the Common Council of Brussels, under the chapter of Public Charity, from the municipal taxes, for the following years:—

Articles.	1872.	1873.
	Fr.	Fr.
I.—Salaries of the physicians and surgeons of poor	6,430	6,930
II.—Subsidy to Bureau de Bienfaisance	41,165	41,165
III.—Support of beggars in dépôts	150,000	140,000
IV.—Do. of infirm paupers in special hospices	2,700	2,700
V.—Succours to poor, given by bourgmestre	6,000	6,000
VI.—Support of foundlings	70,000	80,000
VII.—Subsidies to almshouses	8,000	8,000
VIII.—Do. to Deaf-and-Dumb and Blind Institution	9,000	9,000
IX.—Do. to Deaf-and-Dumb for females	4,600	4,600
X.—Do. to Hospital for Sickly Children	1,000	1,000
XI.—Do. to Blind Asylum	1,000	1,000
XII.—Do. to old scavengers	1,800	1,100
TOTAL	301,195	301,495
Which reduced	= £ St.	12,047
		12,059

Number of paupers relieved.

32. Numbers of the various categories of paupers relieved by the Committees of Charity in the nine parishes of Brussels, and by the Section of Bienfaisance.

	1870.		1871.	
	Natives of Brussels.	Strangers.	Natives.	Strangers.
Relieved in various modes	17,386	1,570	18,436	1,882
Medical relief only	5,844	192	6,166	310
	23,230	1,762	24,602	2,192
Total relieved by Committees	24,992		26,794	
Children supported by Bienfaisance	782		776	
Old pensioners	987		1,061	
Lunatics at Gheel	49		49	
Foundlings	592		700	
TOTAL	27,352		29,380	

Per-cent of pauperism on population in Brussels.

33. The numbers relieved by the *Bienfaisance of Brussels* in 1871 amounted to the large figure of 29,380, or 18 per cent. of the "population de droit," which was in 1866 157,905. Of the above number 26,794 were registered paupers, but 6,476 of these received only medical relief. Of course these numbers are irrespective of the 16,073 persons who were admitted into the nine hospices of Brussels during

the year 1871. The numbers have since fallen to 24,505 registered on 1st January 1872. The cost of the domiciliary relief dispensed in 1871 amounted to 631,019 francs, which, divided among the 7,867 families partaking of relief, would give an average sum of fr. 80.21, to each household. The sums received from various benefactors for the poor of Brussels amounted to 46,017 francs during the year, irrespectively of donations and bequests carried to capital account.

34. In theory *the relief of the poor is essentially a communal duty*, and Contributions should cost nothing to the Province or the State. In practice, however, by the provinces and both these bodies are obliged to assume some share of the burden in certain cases, which will be found specified, as regards the State, in the following table. The provinces contribute towards the support of foundlings, whose commune de secours is unknown, of beggars in the dépôts, and of the deaf-and-dumb, and blind, also bear the whole expenses of assisting travelling paupers, &c. All these charges were provided for in the provincial budgets of 1860 by an estimate of fr. 414,649 = £16,585. The credits inserted in the State budget for similar purposes, amounting to about £29,600, are found in reality to be more than sufficient.

35. Statement of the credits demanded in the budgets of the Ministry of Justice and Public Worship for charitable purposes :

Items of Expenditure.	1872.		1873.	
	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.
I.—Support and removal of paupers either aliens or of unknown domicile - - -	160,000		200,000	
II.—Subsidies : 1°, exceptionally to some hospices and lunatic asylums ; 2°, to communes for the support and education of blind and deaf-and-dumb paupers in certain specified cases ; 3°, to blind and deaf-and-dumb asylums ; 4°, to the victims of military ophthalmia - - -		206,000		240,000
III.—Travelling expenses of physicians sent to treat sufferers from military ophthalmia ; Do. do. of members of certain charitable commissions ; Do. do. of the members and secretary of the Permanent Board of Superintendence of Lunatic Asylums, as also of the inspecting committees of each arrondissement ; Salary of the secretary of the Permanent Board ; Do. do. of the Inspecting Commission of the Lunatic Colony of Gheel, as also that of the assistant secretary		12,000		12,000
IV.—Printing expenses ; purchase of works relative to charitable establishment, and sundry expenses - - -		2,000		2,000
V.—Subsidies for foundlings and deserted children	60,000		50,000	
VI.—Subsidies for the patronage of liberated convicts - - -	10,000		10,000	
VII.—Reformatories for beggars and vagrants under the age of 18 years - - -	280,000		230,000	
TOTAL - - -	730,000		740,000	
Which reduced = £ St.	29,200		29,600	

SECTION V.

The extent to which hospitals, houses of industry, or alms-houses are provided for all or any classes of the poor, and the principles which are adopted in determining whether poor persons shall be required to come into such establishments or be relieved at their own homes.

Treatment of
the sick and
infirm.

36. The provision for the relief of the indigent and sick varies in every commune. Some bureaux have ample revenues, others are supported only by subsidies and subscriptions. Few communes [only 174] have any institutions whatever for accommodating any classes of the poor under their roof. *In the absence of any hospices the sick or infirm are either treated at their own homes or boarded out with private families, or kept in the hospices of other communes, or in private institutions at the expense of their own commune.* The hospices always receive patients from other communes when there is room for them, and debit the commune to which the patient belongs with the expenses. The Administrative Commission is alone qualified to accept or reject all applications for admission. The outlay incurred in this way by the patients' own commune ought in theory to devolve on the Bureau de Bienfaisance, but it is in practice almost always paid directly by the Common Council to the Commission des Hospices of the other commune. There are, moreover, two dépôts de mendicité for the reception of infirm homeless paupers; but there is never a question of compelling paupers to enter the dépôts or the hospices as a condition of granting them relief. There is a third very extensive dépôt for able-bodied beggars and vagrants, which is a kind of penal colony, as will be exposed in the next section.

Foundlings.

37. *Foundlings* are supported in special asylums or boarded out in the country with farmers, under the inspection of the Boards of Hospices, where these exist. A decree of 1811 prescribed that there should be an asylum and a wheel in every arrondissement for receiving such infants. These wheels existed till 1850 in some towns, but have gradually disappeared till 1860, when the last, that of Antwerp, was closed. The law now in force, that of 30th July 1834, distinguishes *foundlings* born of unknown parents from *infants abandoned* by known parents. *The support of the former is defrayed, one half by the commune on whose territory they are found, and the other half by the province;* the support of abandoned infants is placed on the same footing as that of paupers in general, and is defrayed entirely by their Domicile de Secours. The same law provides that an annual subsidy for the expenses of foundlings shall be provided in the state budget. This subsidy is distributed among the provinces under certain conditions. The numbers of foundlings have necessarily fallen off considerably since the suppression of the wheels, viz., from 7,703 in 1849 to 5,754 in 1860. Their support entailed an expense of fr. 522,950, which was borne partly by the three political authorities and partly by the charitable boards. The state contributed a subsidy of fr. 94,608. This subsidy

has fallen now to fr. 50,000 for 1873. The great mass of foundlings, as many as the aggregate of all the other eight provinces, emanates from Brabant, showing the demoralizing influence of the capital. The province of Luxembourg, again, offers a striking contrast with the others by its total exemption from this social malady.

38. *The support of lunatics* is provided for by the law of 1850 in the *Lunatics*. following sense. The government fixes a tariff for the cost of removal and maintenance. In the case of pauper lunatics, these expenses are borne either by special endowments, which exist in some communes, or by the general charitable revenues of the commune, or, finally, in default of either, by the commune itself. Most of the asylums are kept by private individuals or religious communities. One alone, that of Froidmont, is managed by the state, but is managed by the Brothers of Charity. The number of pauper lunatics was, in 1869, 4,583, three fourths of whom were accommodated in 52 public and private asylums. Amongst the former is the peculiar lunatic colony of Gheel, which counts about 800 inmates, who are boarded out amongst the inhabitants. These latter have plied this industry now for several generations, and are able to offer cheaper terms than the regular asylums. The maintenance of a pauper lunatic here amounts only to 65 centimes, or 6*d.* per day. Even at the asylums, the charge is generally under 1 franc.

39. The only other benevolent institution belonging to and managed by the state is the *Royal Institution of Messines*, for the education of ^{Other public institutions.} daughters of military men. This institution is supported by its own independent revenues, having been founded and richly endowed by the Empress Maria Theresa in 1776. Its benefits will, probably, be extended to the orphan daughters of civil servants of the state. There are also in Belgium 11 *deaf-and-dumb* and *blind asylums*, generally private institutions, kept by monastic communities, under the inspection of the authorities. The provinces of Brabant, Namur, and Hainaut further contribute some small subsidies towards the *ophthalmic institutions* which there exist. A fourth exists at Liège, but without any official support beyond receiving payment of fees for the treatment of pauper patients from their respective communes.

40. Most of the hospitals are kept by or attended by *female monastic congregations*. The organic decree of 1809, still in vigour, authorises the Government to confer civil personification, by sanctioning their statutes, or female hospitallers whose mission was to tend the sick, the infirm, and abandoned infants, to carry relief and medicine to the houses of the poor. This decree lays down the forms for extending the benefits of this institution to such communes as desire it, prescribes the conditions for the admission of novices, authorises these communities to receive property by donation or bequest, and reserves to each member the free disposal of her own private property, with this restriction, that she cannot alienate it by a deed *inter vivos* while living under the influence of vows. The number of these communities recognized by Arrêté Royal was 159 in 1861, and their population above 3,000.

Female monastic congregations.

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Fermes-
hospices.

41. *The institutions called fermes-hospices* deserve some attention as a means of promoting comfort and economy in the support of infirm paupers and children. They are small farms where a few of these two classes are received on condition of earning their living, at least partially, by some light work suited to their strength. Formerly these unfortunates were boarded out amongst the inhabitants, being allotted by a Dutch auction to whomsoever accepted the lowest price for their support. The public was invited to the auction by the usual means for giving publicity. The paupers were exhibited and closely scrutinized as to their capacities or infirmities by the surrounding amateurs, and finally knocked down to the lowest bidder amidst the jokes of the populace. The fermes-hospices have put an end to this scandal in the two Flanders, where alone they exist. There are no official returns concerning them, as they are mostly private institutions which receive small sums for the keep of these unfortunates from their respective communes, sometimes as little as 2*d.* per day. Some interesting information on this subject may be found in the *Journal of the Statist. Soc.*, Vol. 15.

SECTION VI.**The mode in which vagrants and beggars are dealt with.**

Law as to
vagrants and
beggars.

42. *By the decree of 5 July 1808 begging was prohibited*, a dépôt de mendicité was ordered to be created in every department, and every person found begging was to be arrested by the gendarmerie and removed to the dépôt by order of the "local authority," therefore without a judicial sentence. Beggars in a state of vagrancy were to be sent to prison. The penal code of 1810 (Arts. 271, 275) enacts very severe penalties against both offences, and left the culprits at the disposal of the Government after the expiration of their terms of imprisonment, to be detained in the dépôts for any further period. Place was also reserved in the dépôts for homeless paupers who asked for admission. A separation of these different classes and some useful labour was at first attempted but abandoned as impracticable. Thus the five dépôts de mendicité became great hostelleries for supplying board, lodging, and congenial society to all the profligates of the country at the public expense.

Suppression of
free admissions
to the dépôts
de mendicité
in 1848.

43. This system was found to be intolerably expensive and perfectly ineffectual as a means of repression. The remedy was thought to lie in the *suppression of free admissions*. Therefore a law was passed in 1848 providing that beggars and vagrants should still be received in the dépôts, but that spontaneous applicants should not be admitted without the sanction of their own communal or other authorities. Paupers thus admitted at their own desire may be forced to remain in the dépôt for 30 days, and if they return within the same year are to be detained for a period of from 6 to 12 months, at the discretion of the permanent deputation. These restrictions did not produce the desired effect, that of relieving the burden of the communes, but only increased

the number of judicial condemnations. For when an applicant was refused admittance, he had only to get himself convicted as a beggar or vagrant, which involved a penalty of one to seven days imprisonment, and a further sojourn of from 6 to 12 months in the dépôt, at the discretion of the governor of the province. The law had little effect in keeping down the population of the dépôts, but altered the relative proportions of the free and compulsory inmates as appears from the following table:—

Periods.	Average Numbers of Inmates.			Numbers of free and of compulsory inmates in the dépôts.
	Free.	Convicts.	Total.	
From 1842 to 1844 - - - -	3,626	1,104	4,730	
„ 1845 to 1847 - - - -	5,411	2,930	8,341	
„ 1848 to 1849 - - - -	2,904	3,676	5,980	
„ 1850 to 1852 - - - -	417	4,890	4,807	
„ 1853 to 1855 - - - -	535	5,617	6,152	
„ 1859 to 1868 - - - -	378	3,619	3,997	

The main result of the above law has been the toleration of mendicancy, particularly in the rural communes, as a lesser evil than that of supporting beggars in the dépôts for indefinite periods.

44. *The system of dépôts de mendicité was totally transformed by New law of the law of 6th March 1866* on the principle of bringing able-bodied beggars under severe discipline, while tolerating juvenile and infirm beggars. This law enacts that every able-bodied beggar or vagrant aged more than 14 years *shall be arrested* and brought before the tribunal de simple police, may be sentenced to prison for from one to seven days, and *may* be placed after that at the disposal of the Government for a term to be fixed by the juge de paix, which term is to be from 15 days to three months for the first offence, and from three to six months for the second. Culprits under 14 years old are to be arrested and sent to a reformatory till they attain the age of 20. Able-bodied culprits over 14 years of age are to be confined in a penitentiary or a dépôt de mendicité during their term of seclusion. The governor is authorised to suppress all the dépôts and to re-organize them on new principles. If there are extenuating circumstances, the judge is authorised to inflict a penalty of "simple police", i.e., seven days imprisonment without labour or subsequent seclusion.

45. Additional penalties are awarded by this law to persons who cause children to beg, or who procure children or cripples to accompany them for the purpose of exciting commiseration. The *new penal code of 1867* is very severe upon the offences committed by beggars or vagrants such as trespass, threats, simulating sores and infirmities,

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begging in troops or in disguise, carrying arms, bearing false passports or papers, carrying housebreakers' tools, &c. After the expiration of their penalty they may be kept from 5 to 10 years under the surveillance of the police. Vagrants are defined to be those who have no fixed abode or means of subsistence, and who habitually exercise no trade or profession.

46. By the law of 1866 *vagrants and beggars, infirm, or aged less than 14 years* may be arrested and brought before the tribunal of police. If arrested outside of their own commune, the bourgmestre will, in the first instance, enjoin them to return thereto. They cannot be prosecuted without the sanction of the bourgmestre. This disposition withdraws the repression of mendicity from the exclusive action of the judicial authority when the culprit is infirm or aged less than 14. It thus allows the commune to tolerate or put down begging within its own limits as regards these two classes. It is thought probable that each commune will tolerate mendicity exercised by its own inhabitants and will expel the beggars of neighbouring communes. Juvenile and infirm beggars when convicted must be placed at the disposal of the Government for six months on their first and for two years on their second conviction. They are to be detained in a dépôt, a charitable institution, or a reformatory, according to circumstances, until they are 20 years of age. The reception in the dépôts of voluntary applicants must be previously sanctioned by the college of bourgmestre and aldermen of their "domicile de secours" which is to pay for their maintenance.

47. The following table gives some *statistics of the five dépôts* recently existing, and of the two reformatories still existing :—

DÉPÔTS DE MENDICITE.

Years.	Entries.	Average population.	Expenditure, &c.
1840 - -	2,739	2,828	404,253
1850 - -	4,508	3,478	538,967
1860 - -	8,431	2,448	541,781
1862 - -	4,394	2,918	701,603
1866 - -	2,851	1,570	390,238
1867 - -	4,044	1,659	432,817
1869 - -	4,549	1,938	515,742
1870 - -	4,836	1,925	508,992

REFORMATORIES.

1860 - -	146	171	81,068
1862 - -	223	843	161,449
1866 - -	182	767	153,332
1867 - -	287	779	156,464
1869 - -	290	829	181,488
1870 - -	262	819	179,365

48. Although *the whole régime of beggars and vagrants is still in a transitional state*, the new law has already borne good fruits. The principal object, that of relieving the burden of the communes, has been already attained. The population supported by them, which, during the five years anterior to 1866, averaged 2,557 per day, fell in the three following years to an average of 1,643, and the expenditure fell from fr. 578,156 to fr. 450,839.

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Effects of the
new law.

Two of the dépôts, those of Brussels and Mons, have been closed. Two, those of Reckheim and Bruges, have been maintained as asylums for infirm paupers belonging to the five eastern and the four western provinces. Hoogstraeten alone is used as a dépôt for 400 able-bodied beggars of both sexes. These are to be gradually removed to the neighbouring large estates of Merxplas-Ryckevorsel, which have been purchased as a penal colony for able-bodied beggars and vagrants. This domain contains 1,100 hectares (2,717 acres) of land, and is intended to give accommodation and employment to 1,500 convicts (reclus). It will be interesting to watch the progress of this new experiment. A philanthropic attempt to employ paupers without coercion on the same lands absorbed large sums of money and came to an end in 1842. More beneficial results are expected from the severe discipline combined with compulsory field labour now to be enforced.

Penal colony
for beggars
and vagrants.

SECTION VII.

The principle adopted in determining the chargeability of individual paupers, viz.: whether they are relieved at the cost of the locality where they became destitute, or whether their places of birth or domicile are liable to repay the charge.

49. The National Convention of 1793 laid down the principle that Settlement. the relief of all was a duty of the nation. The question of domicile was therefore of no importance, for wherever the pauper might be, there the omnipresent state owed him relief and work. The law of An II. defined, however, the "domicile de secours" to be that place where an indigent man is entitled to receive public relief; that the birthplace was the natural "domicile de secours," but that a new one might be acquired by a residence of a year in another commune. A gross sum was distributed by the state among all the cantons of the Republic for purposes of poor relief. The laws of the year V. completely altered the system of the convention, but still maintained *the principle of a year's residence as constituting a claim*. There was, however, no obligation on any one to relieve the poor beyond the limits of the charitable resources which might be available. If the bureau of any locality relieved a stranger it was an act of humanity which gave the donor no claim upon any other commune.

50. The law of 1818 introduced the important innovation of giving to each commune the right of claiming reimbursement from other communes, and prescribed that a new "domicile de secours" might be Repayment of relief by place of settlement.

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acquired by an uninterrupted residence of four years in one commune, during which all taxes shall have been paid. By an *arrêté* of 1825 the government threw on the communes the entire cost of supporting their own paupers in the dépôts de mendicité. From this time the burden of poor relief began to press more and more heavily on the communes. Some of them, to get rid of their paupers, used to send them away to and support them for four years in other communes, in order to make them chargeable to the latter. These devices excited great complaints on the part of the towns.

New law of 1845 as to settlement.

51. To redress this grievance a *law was passed on the 18th of February 1845*, raising the term of residence to eight years. The following are the principle dispositions of this law which is still the chief authority in the matter. Every indigent person is, in case of necessity to be relieved provisionally by the commune where he may happen to be. If this commune should not be his "domicile de secours" it shall be entitled to recover from the commune to which he may be chargeable. This repayment cannot be refused on the plea that the recipient was not indigent. In such case the commune which reimburses the outlay is to recoup itself by suing the individual in question. The commune where provisional relief is supplied is required to notify the fact within a fortnight to the administration of the commune presumed to be the real domicile de secours. The pauper shall be sent back to this commune if the same demands it, and if circumstances admit of this removal.

52. The law confirms the principle of the year V. that *the natural "domicile de secours" is the birth place*; but lays down that a person born fortuitously on the territory of a commune from a stranger shall belong to the commune where his father or mother resided at the time of his birth, provided such commune can be ascertained. Foundlings born of unknown parents shall belong to the commune where they are found, with this reserve that half the charge of their support shall fall on the province where this commune is situated. A residence of eight consecutive years in a commune confers a new "domicile de secours" in place of that acquired elsewhere by birth or residence.

Disputes, how arranged.

53. *Contestations amongst charitable institutions and amongst communes* on these questions are decided by the administrative authorities; viz., by the common council, by the permanent deputation, or by the Government. The main fault of this system is the multiplicity of accounts entailed by it. The 2,564 communes are thus necessarily involved in endless correspondence, litigation, and debt. Thus the Brussels Conseil des Hospices et Secours is a creditor of other communes to the amount of fr. 634,847 which is doubtless more or less irrecoverable.

Criticism of the law.

54. *The law in its present state is unduly advantageous to the towns and unjust to the rural communes.* It is a common case that a poor child born in the country is kept alive by public or private charity till he grows up, when he goes to look for work in some large town. There he does not acquire a domicile because this requires a continuous residence of eight years, and he is probably shifting his abode from the

city to the suburbs, or to other towns during this period. When he falls into distress he is relieved by the bureau or the hospices of the town at the expense of his native commune. Later on he returns old or decrepid to his village, and has to be supported by it to his death without having ever benefited it by his labour. Baron Kervyn in 1869 brought in a bill for the *revision of the law of 1845*, which reduced the term of residence from eight years to one; but the measure was lost on the dissolution of the chamber in 1870. Another bill fixing the term of residence at three years is now under consideration, and will probably be submitted during the present session. It provides for a large contribution of the province and of the State towards the relief of paupers who have been absent for five years from their "domicile de secours," and towards the support of lunatics.

SECTION VIII.

The manner in which paupers who are foreigners are treated.

55. By the law of 1845 every indigent person is relieved temporarily Foreign by the commune where he may be found, without distinction of origin. paupers. If he proves to be a foreigner the State reimburses the expenditure incurred by the commune. The Government has no power to expel a foreigner for the mere fact of falling into distress and having recourse to official charity. The law of 30th April 1848 allows the expulsion of a foreign pauper only when arrested for, and convicted of mendicity or vagrancy.

56. Aliens admitted by an *Arrêté Royal* to establish their domicile in Belgium in accordance with the Art. 13. of the Civil Code acquire a "domicile de secours" for themselves and their families by dwelling eight years in the same commune [*vide § 51.*] It must be observed, however, that this Royal *Arrêté* is very seldom applied for. Resident aliens who have not acquired a domicile in any one commune are relieved at the ultimate expense of the Government. The law of 1845 established an innovation on this point, as the *Arrêté Royal* of 1825 previously in vigor granted to aliens a right to relief from the commune where they might have resided six years. The new bill on the *domicile de secours*, [*vide § 54*] provides that an alien acquires a "domicile de secours" for himself, his wife, and his children who are minors by a residence of ten consecutive years in a commune. The relief of an alien who has not acquired any "domicile de secours" is still to be at the charge of the State.

57. *Conventions* were concluded in 1841 and 1843 between *Belgium* and the *Grand Duchy of Luxembourg* for the mutual reimbursement of succours afforded to the natives of either state who might become destitute in the territory of the other. These conventions having occasioned correspondence and accounts not sufficiently compensated by the results, in other words, having given more trouble than they were worth, were abrogated in 1849 by common accord.

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Charges incurred by the State under this head.

58. *The charges incurred by the State for the relief of indigent aliens and of Belgian paupers whose "domicile de secours" was unknown amount to the following sums:—*

Items.	1859.	1860.	1873. (Estimate).
Cost of removal - - -	Fr. 205	Fr. 432	Fr.
Domiciliary relief - - -	18,924	15,025	
Support and medi- { in hospices -	50,029	49,982	
cal attendance { dépôts and asylums	77,936	80,388	
Total - -	147,094	145,827	200,000
which reduced to £ st.	5,883	5,882	8,000

The English poor of Brussels are relieved by a charitable association of their countrymen who collect a sum of 260*l.* for this purpose, 84*l.* of which is annually contributed by the king.

SECTION IX.

The practical working and effect of the actual system of relief upon the comfort, character, and condition of the inhabitants.

Opinion of Baron Kervyn as to the working of the system of relief.

59. This question is perhaps best answered in the *words of Baron Kervyn, late Minister of the Interior*, affixed to his bill of 1869 [v. 54.]

" Aussi a-t-on constaté dans tous les pays, et notamment en Angleterre, où l'intervention de la bienfaisance publique a été poussée aux plus extrêmes exagérations, que plus la charge est accablante pour la production et le travail, plus elle reste stérile pour ceux qui en profitent ; car l'indigent loin de se relever par le secours public dans l'ordre matériel ou dans l'ordre moral, loin d'atteindre une situation meilleure à mesure que ce secours s'accroît et se perpétue, se sent entraîné davantage par l'oisiveté dans la misère et dans la dégradation. Une longue expérience atteste également en Belgique que les charges des communes ont subi une progression effrayante, et que les sacrifices exigés des éléments les plus honnêtes de la population ont été trop souvent absorbés sans fruit par des individualités honteuses et méprisables."

Pressure of pauperism of long standing in Belgium.

60. The Duke Philip of Burgundy in 1459 and the Emperor Charles V. in 1515 already tried to grapple with this problem. The latter, in his curious edict against beggars, attributes the evil to the excessive number of charitable institutions, which had increased distress by encouraging idleness. The evil seems to have gone on increasing in spite of a host of measures passed by the local and central authorities. Thus it appears that towards the end of the 18th century, Flanders, among its population of 700,000 counted no less than 100,000 paupers, of whom 64,000 were given to the rural districts, 14,000 to Bruges and 12,000 to Ghent.

The proportion does not seem to have diminished in the present century, for the returns of 1868 show that 11 per cent. of the Flemish population were actually receiving relief from the public in that year.

61. This great social malady may be attributed to the combined action of the following causes :—

1. *The excessive density of the population.* This is again the result of other causes which are connected with the extreme manufacturing activity of Flanders in the middle ages. The Austrian and French governments are both responsible for having promoted the excess of population by promoting the excessive sub-division of the land. The average size of fee simple estates in E. Flanders is $5\frac{6}{100}$ acres. Half the holdings in the province are of less than $1\frac{1}{4}$ acre each. This evidently acts as a cause as well as an effect of the density and consequent poverty of the population, which two features taken conjointly are more marked here than in any other province of Europe. The population of E. Flanders amounts to 294 per square kilometre, or 741 per English square mile.

62. *The second great cause of pauperism seems to have been the excessive amount of assistance and alms provided by public and private charity,* which has attracted and multiplied the candidates for the same beyond all bounds, and has offered the main stimulus to the excessive increase of the population. All laws which promote improvidence by assuring a certain allowance to working men proportionate to the numbers of the family are so many disturbances of the natural balance between population and food. The regular inscription of the poor, extending to a third of the working class, gives to the recipients an undue advantage in competition with other workmen not so favoured, tends to lower the general scale of wages in Belgium, and to throw all " upon the rates." The Statistical Congress of 1853 recognizes the division of working men into three classes, viz. : 1, indigent families relieved by public charity ; 2, poor families not so relieved ; 3, well to do independent workmen. An official return of 1857 showed that the great mass of the working class came under the first two categories. Of 908,000 families then existing in Belgium, 446,000 or about half were returned as in indigent circumstances, of whom 26,600 lived on public charity. The number of beggars was set down at 88,019.

Other causes which more or less contribute to the present result are, the spread of intemperance ; the increasing prices of the necessaries of life ; the deficiency of moral, physical, and professional education. Whatever may be the relative value of all these causes, it is certain that the rich endowments and provision for the relief of the poor during many centuries have had a main share in producing the mischief which they were intended to remedy.

63. *The third and possibly the first cause of pauperism is the vice of Intemperance, also the main source of crime, disease, and insanity.* The progress of this vice more than keeps pace with that of the national prosperity. Thus the consumption of spirituous liquors has risen from 6·17 litres per head [which was the average of the 10 years

Belgium.

from 1851 to 1860] to 8·51 litres [1·87 gallons] in 1866, all qualities being reduced to an uniform strength of 50° by Guy Lussac's hydrometer. The number of liquor shops is also increasing every year, having risen in 1870 to 100,763., i.e., one for every 48 inhabitants! These figures are more eloquent than any commentary. No restriction is placed on this diffusion of poison, beyond the payment of a trifling license duty. Instead of being kept under rigid control, this baneful "interest" has risen to be a power in the state, turning the scale at elections, therefore feared, courted, and indulged by the contending political parties. There is here ample scope and urgent need for legislation, in the regulation of taverns, in the repression of drunkenness, in the restriction of the use of corn for distillation, and in the further taxation of gin. Every hectolitre of gin at 50° represents about 200 kilogrammes, or 2·6 hectolitres of corn. The 411,824 hectolitres of spirits consumed in 1866 would represent 4,070,742 hectolitres of corn, worth at least 26,000,000 francs, far more than all the public charitable expenditure of the country. The example of one or two of the United States proves that it is quite possible to make some impression on this monster evil of the age. The most obvious desideratum here is the diminution, and, wherever possible, the suppression of gin shops, combined with reduction and toleration accorded to beer, a comparatively innocuous article. This policy offers the only hope of keeping down pauperism, by striking at the root of the evil.

Comparative tables of expenditure and pauperism in Belgium and in England.

64. Comparative statement of the numbers of paupers relieved, and of the amounts expended on relief in Belgium and England.

				Belgium.	England and Wales.
Population	- { Belgian census of 1866 English " 1871	-	4,829,320	—	22,704,408
Numbers of paupers relieved, including hospitals.	{ Belgian, 1868. [v. § 23.] England, 1870-71	-	571,050	—	1,037,000
Ratio per cent. on the population	- - -	11·82	4·6		
Gross amount expended.	{ Belgium, 1864-68 England, 1870-71	- -	851,020	—	7,886,724
Rate per head	- { on the population on each pauper	- -	0 3 6½ 1 10 0	0 6 11½ 7 12 0½	
Net amount defrayed by taxation.	{ Aggregate per head of population	- -	188,964 0 0 10	7,886,724 0 6 11½	

65. Comparative statement of the amount of the average annual charge, and of the increase or decrease of pauperism in the three following countries during the periods mentioned :

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Table of the comparative increase of pauperism in England, France, and Belgium.

Country.	Period.	Number of Paupers relieved per cent. on Population.		Expenditure on Poor Relief.					
				Per Head of Population.		Per Pauper.			
		Beginning of Period.	End of Period.	Beginning of Period.	End of Period.	Beginning of Period.	End of Period.		
England	- - 1855-68	4.80	4.50	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	7 7 4	
France	- - 1858-60	2.85	3.31	0 6 10	0 7 0	7 0 0	7 0 0	0 9 8	0 9 8
Belgium	- - 1844-58	14.16	15.85	0 0 8	0 0 34	0 9 8	0 11 3	0 11 8	0 11 8

66. I have prepared the two above tables for the purpose of comparing the amount and burden of pauperism in these three neighbouring countries. The first of these tables is entirely original and derived [as to Belgium] from unpublished but official data. The latter is mainly derived from the "Armenwesen" of Emminghaus. It is difficult to compare the returns of two countries where the systems are so different as in Belgium and England. The principles of poor relief being, however, similar in Belgium and France, are susceptible of being compared with each other in their results. Two facts are clear from the latter table, that the burden of pauperism is much heavier in Belgium than in France, and that in both countries the burden went on increasing down to the end of 1858 and 1860. Data are wanting for a comparison of the two countries down to a latter period.

67. Aggregate budget of public charity in Belgium, derived from the Budget of last procurable official returns, distinguishing the expenditure defrayed in Belgium by the charitable funds from that defrayed by taxation :

Contributors.	Charitable Revenues.	Expenditure.		
		From Charitable Revenues.	From Taxation.	Total.
Bureaux de bienfaisance 1868	Fr. 8,500,000	Fr. 8,500,000	Fr. 2,178,192	Fr. 10,678,792
Hospices - - - 1868	8,392,084	8,051,414	—	8,051,414
Communes - - - 1864				
Subsidies to hospices and bureaux; support of lunatics, beggars in the dépôts and foundlings -		—	8,839,921	8,839,921
Provinces: Subsidies to communes, and support of foundlings - - - 1864	—	—	267,750	267,750
The state, vide s. 35 - 1868	—	—	616,444	616,444
Total, approximatively Fr.	16,892,084	16,551,414	4,724,115	21,275,529
Which reduced = - £ St.	675,683	662,056	188,964	851,020

The total of Fr. 21,275,529, in column 4, results from the addition of the totals of columns 2 and 3 not from the addition of the items in column 4. The reason of this is, that among these items the sum of Fr. 2,178,192, which forms the approximate contribution of the communes to the bureaux de bienfaisance, is included twice, viz., in the expenditure of the bureaux and in that of the communes.

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Expenditure
per head in
England and
Belgium com-
pared.

68. The above statement is the first attempt which has, to my knowledge, been made to tabulate the charitable expenditure of Belgium with a view to exhibit the proportion falling upon each of the five dispensers of public assistance. This table, combined with that under § 64, is sufficiently accurate to allow a *comparison of the Belgian and English systems of poor relief*. Both countries have much in common, especially a huge load of chronic pauperism; but they have adopted totally different modes of dealing with this problem. In England the burden is thrown entirely upon the taxpayers, costing them 6s. 11½d. per head of the population, and £7 12s. 0½d. for every pauper relieved. Here a pauper population, double in proportion to our own is sufficiently relieved at an aggregate cost of £1 10s. for every pauper relieved, of which only 22 per cent. falls upon the taxpayers, costing them 10d. per head per annum. The whole cost of relieving the poor and the sick, including the expenses of all the hospitals, only amounts to 3s. 6½d. per head of the population, while in England the cost of the poor alone, irrespectively of the hospitals, amounts to double that sum. It is true that the relief afforded in England is much more expensive and liberal in its nature, owing mainly to the workhouse system, which has never existed to the same extent in Belgium, and is being now virtually abandoned : [vide sect. VI.]

69. Owing to the thrifty principles and practice followed in Belgium the expense of poor relief forms in the aggregate an insignificant burden. The load is not heavy, but it does not sit well on the shoulders of the nation. In a former report [of 26 March 1864, § 33] I pointed out what appeared and still appears to me a radical fault in the administrative system, viz., *the excessive subdivision of the territory*. There are now 2,565 communes, each provided with a mayor, a corporation, and with all the paraphernalia of civic government, each entrusted with the imposition and expenditure of taxes, with the making of laws, with complicated administrative functions, in short each of them a complete government in miniature. This system works well enough in the large Communes. The average population of each Commune is 1893 ; but one half are mere villages of less than 1,000 souls, entirely deficient in all the materials for forming an efficient town council. Ignorance, incompetence, jobbery, and prodigality are therefore often predominant. The burden of poor relief falls very unequally on these small communities. Some having large endowments are free from taxation and debt for the poor. Others are crushed beneath the burden, and deeply in debt to the province and hospices. The remedy would seem to lie in a general consolidation of the rural communes, or in adopting the canton, [of which there are 286, with an average population of 13,668] as the unit of local government.

Excessive
subdivision
of territory in
Belgium.

Various insti-
tutions for
relieving and
preventing
destitution.

70. It would unduly lengthen this report were I to expose all the *institutions which exist for the purpose of relieving and preventing destitution*. Private associations of this nature are very numerous, but publish nothing of their proceedings. The principal are the numerous monastic communities, the lay Societies of St. Vincent, of Paul, and of

the Freemasons. Great praise is due to the efforts of individuals and of the government for instituting savings banks, Friendly and Provident Societies. Great numbers of trades unions are also founded for the above purpose, some recognized, some not recognized by the government, and have taken a great development of late more for purposes of "resistance" than of "assistance." It is found very difficult to induce the workman to lay by a sum for the future, so long as the Bureau de Bienfaisance offers a certain provision for old age. Nevertheless the provident societies [caisses de prévoyance] are making some progress, and are looked to as the most promising allies in the struggle with pauperism, by promoting habits of saving, of self restraint and self reliance among the working class.

H. P. T. BARON.

HER MAJESTY'S CONSULATE, ANTWERP.

No. 5.

My LORD,

March 19th 1872.

IN reply to Lord Tenterden's Circular Despatch of November 20th, 1871, transmitting to me a Paper of Queries supplied by the Society for organizing Charitable Relief and repressing Mendicity in London, I have the honour to report to your Lordship that there does not exist in this city any organization formed on the principle on which the society in question is founded. Although it will therefore be impossible for me to supply the specific information required, I propose to furnish a few details bearing upon the subjects to which reference is made in the Queries transmitted by the society.

The general control and management of the poor in Belgium is centered in each town or district in a Board of Directors, termed *Bureau de Bienfaisance*, which exercises its functions under the supervision of the municipal authorities, and the members of which are assisted by a certain number of distributors by whom public charity is dispensed within the limits of the district. This system of relief corresponds in a great measure with that afforded by the Poor Law Authorities in England, being public in its character, and sustained partly by subsidies from the town and by the revenue derived from lands or other property belonging to the Board.

In this city various charitable institutions, including hospitals, homes, &c., forming a separate organization termed *l'Administration des Hospices*, besides certain private charitable societies established with a view to administering relief to the poor, also exist. Some of these, such as the societies of *St. Vincent de Paul*, *St. François Régis*, and *St. François Xavier* are founded for specific objects, independent of the actual relief they supply. The *curés* or rectors of the different parishes also distribute pecuniary aid to the poor, but all relief dispensed by the *Administration des*

Various institutions under the Administration des Hospices.

Private charitable societies.

BELGIUM.

System of the
bureau.

Hospices, by the private societies, and by the clergy is afforded out of the knowledge or control of the *Bureau de Bienfaisance*, and they act independently of each other.

The general system of relief pursued by the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* is the following: There are two categories of poor, those who are in receipt of permanent and those who only receive casual relief. The former are inscribed in books or registers kept for that purpose in each *section* or ward, embracing the names of the members of each family, their place and date of birth, the street and number of their residence, the date of vaccination of their children, the schools they frequent, their trade or occupation, the amount of wages they receive, the rent of their lodging, their general means of living, the amount of relief afforded, &c.

Where casual relief only is given, no actual register is kept, but a return of each family is preserved, which contains in general about the same information as that relating to paupers permanently relieved.

Persons en-
titled to per-
manent relief.

The following persons are entitled to permanent relief: 1º. Individuals who have attained the age of seventy. 2º. Any other persons afflicted with an incurable disease or an infirmity that incapacitates them from work. 3º. Independently of all infirmity or illness, widowers or widows with at least two children under the age of twelve. 4º. Also, during the winter months, families with at least three children under twelve years of age. The amount of pecuniary support is fixed according to the following scale: 1º. For infirm old persons the relief varies from one to two francs a week per individual. 2º. For families the rate of relief for each person is reduced, the allowance being slightly higher in winter than in summer.

Scale of relief.

But besides pecuniary relief, medical assistance is frequently afforded by means of what is termed a *carte du service de santé*, entitling the holder or any member of his family to the visits of the physicians, and enabling them to have recourse to the dispensaries attached to the Board, either gratuitously or at a reduced price, according to circumstances. In some cases free admission to the hospital is granted, and to women lying in the gratuitous aid of a midwife, besides, to a certain extent, provisions and coals, baby linen for the new born child, &c., &c.

Local parish
committees.

The investigations into the case of applicants for relief are conducted by the local parish committees of the *Bureau de Bienfaisance*. These committees consist of from five to twenty persons, chiefly citizens retired from business, and of independent means, including frequently the vicar of the parish, and are all unpaid. The poor are always visited at their homes, and the cases are carefully investigated, regard being had to the character and conduct of the applicants and their families. The classes to whom relief is principally given consist of labourers and persons who have not been brought up to any trade or special calling. Illness is supposed to be the prime cause of distress, and medical inspection forms the basis of the investigation employed to ascertain it.

Mendicants.

As regards the treatment of mendicants, it may be observed

that very few are to be met with in Antwerp or its vicinity. Mendicity being prohibited by law, the police are charged to arrest any persons without occupation and found begging, and send them to the establishments termed *Dépôts de Mendicité*, of which there are four in Belgium, and where they are detained at the expense of the authorities of the *commune* or township to which they belong. These *Dépôts* are in fact houses of correction where the vagrants are imprisoned, and remain until claimed or released by their own *commune*.

There are no particular measures taken, as far as I can learn, to promote the migration of labour in this province. Loans are not granted officially by the *Bureau de Bienfaisance*, but are sometimes given, especially to that class of poor termed *Pauvres honteux*—respectable poor who, though often very distressed, are ashamed to beg or to ask assistance publicly—and whose cases are investigated with much secrecy and delicacy by two members of each local committee; but the money lent is seldom repaid, the loan being in reality in most cases nothing more than a disguised gift.

Various measures have been taken of late years at Antwerp to improve the condition of the poorer classes, by the erection of model lodging houses and by the promotion of a variety of sanitary improvements.

Efforts are also made to promote provident and temperate habits amongst the population, one of which consists in prizes for cleanliness, so termed (*prix de propreté*), which are distributed to the extent of 3,000 francs annually amongst poor households, distinguished not only for their habits of cleanliness, but also for their morality and general good conduct. It is to be regretted, however, that intemperance, stimulated by the low price of spirituous liquors in this country, prevails very generally amongst the working classes of Antwerp.

According to the Returns for the year 1871, there were 1,418 households, numbering in all 4,395 persons in receipt of permanent out-door relief, out of a population of about 135,000 inhabitants, being slightly over 3½ per cent. of the whole population. The average annual disbursements of the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* may be estimated at 400,000 francs (16,000*l.*), of which sum nearly one third is derived from revenue on property held by the Board.

Per-centge
of pauperism
on population.

Some of the foregoing particulars are reproduced from a Report from this Consulate contained in the volume of Commercial Reports received at the Foreign Office from Her Majesty's Consuls in 1869.

I have the honour to be, my Lord,
Your Lordships most obedient humble servant,
Right Honorable E. A. GRATTAN.
The Earl Granville, K.G.,
&c., &c., &c.,
Foreign Office.

PRUSSIA.

**Report on the Relief of the Poor in PRUSSIA,
by F. R. Plunkett.**

**Historical
introduction.**

Before entering into any details respecting the nature and extent of the provision made for the relief of the poor in Germany, it may not be out of place to take a glance at the causes which have led to the present confusion in the poor laws of the various states constituting the empire.

As far back as in 1497, 1532, and 1577, laws of the old German Empire prohibited begging and vagrancy and laid down vague general rules for the relief of persons in distress. These may be considered as the first germ of the systems at present in force; but, practically, up to the beginning of last century nothing very definite in the way of legislation had been attempted in any of the states, large or small, which composed the empire. Under the feudal system, persons in distress were usually maintained either by the lord of the manor or by the guild to which they had been admitted or by casual charity. Begging, however, was prohibited and the communes ("gemeinden") were, by the law of 1577 above alluded to, bound to support their own poor, send away strangers, and provide accommodation for the sick. Especial care was taken to prevent strangers establishing settlement, a point on which the various states appear to have acted more or less in concert; but as regards the mode of relief, not only each country, but often each district, established a system of its own, entirely regardless of what was done by its neighbour.

Hence it came to pass that, each state acting separately and without reference to the others, a system of poor relief administration grew up so complicated and so varied that on no one point could a general rule be laid down as applicable to the whole of Germany.

Herr Emminghaus in his book "Das Armenwesen und die Armen Gesetzgebung in Europäischen Staaten" published at Berlin in 1870, gives a review of the systems in force in the year 1869, in Prussia, Berlin, Hanover, Brunswick, Würtemberg, Lübeck, Bremen, Hesse Cassel, Hamburg, Saxony, Elbersfeld, Schleswig-Holstein, Frankfort-on-the-Main, Nassau, Oldenburg, Anhalt, and Bavaria; but, as a new system, to a certain extent general to the whole empire, is now being introduced, I think it is unnecessary to enter into the details of each of these various legislations on the subject.

I shall, however, have occasion to quote from this work when I come to the statistics of the special poor law system of Prussia.

There are no general returns of recent date with respect to pauperism, and the imperfect statistics which it is possible to obtain have to be taken from returns made chiefly in 1861.

In Prussia, and in most of the states which after 1866 constituted the North German Confederation, the system was to hold each district responsible for every case of distress arising within its juris-

**No system
applicable to
whole of
Germany.**

**No modern
returns appli-
cable to whole
of Germany
or whole of
Prussia.**

**Systems
adopted most**

diction. The expenses were defrayed out of the communal treasury, but were in most cases recoverable afterwards from the relations of the pauper, or from the district to which he properly belonged. No special poor rate was levied, except in a very few districts, and then merely as subsidiary to the general funds. In some towns, for instance, theatres were made to pay a small per-centage of their gains to a poor fund, but it was rather the exception than the rule when such a course was followed.

The mode of levying the necessary funds was different in Hanover from what it was in Prussia, Brunswick, and Nassau ; and Schleswig-Holstein and Oldenburg adopted a system which again differed from both the others.

In Westphalia, Friesland and the Rhine provinces there existed special relief committees having funds at their disposal which replaced the communes as guardians of the poor ; but in the greater portion of North Germany the work was left simply in the hands of the communal authorities, who took what steps they considered best in the way which to them might appear most convenient.

The supervision of poor relief was almost universally in the hands of committees generally nominated by the communal council, or elected by the inhabitants ; the members in some cases were paid, in other cases they were unpaid ; and the control exercised over them by the state, their jurisdiction and power, as well as the period of their holding office, varied not only in each country, but almost in every district. The rules as to what constituted destitution were different in different localities, and Hanover, Hesse, Frankfort-on-the-Main, Mecklenburg, and Brunswick, had no definite laws whatever on the subject.

On one point, however, practice and custom had established an almost universal rule. In each state those persons who were domiciled in it had a claim on public charity in case of destitution. Difficulties, however, constantly arose from the conflict of the different laws on the question of domicile, it happening frequently that persons fell destitute in places where they had no domicile, while on the other hand they had by prolonged absence lost their rights in their birth place.

In order to remedy the evils arising from this cause, the Convention of Gotha was signed in 1851 and the Agreement of Eisenach in 1853. The former laid down the principles upon which a state was justified in turning destitute persons out of its territory if they had not lived there long enough to obtain a proper settlement, and defined also the manner in which settlement would, under certain circumstances, be established. On no account, however, was a pauper to be turned out of a state until it was clear to what other state he was chargeable ; and, in case of dispute between two states on this subject, the pauper had to be maintained by the state which wished to get rid of him until the question of his domicile had been diplomatically settled between the two Governments.

The agreement of Eisenach laid down the principle that when a pauper required medical assistance he must receive it from the state in which he happened to be when taken ill ; and if, for fear

PRUSSIA.
generally in
Prussia and in
North Ger-
many.

PRUSSIA.

of danger to himself or infection to others, it was impossible to move him, that state had to defray all the expenses of his care, and could not reclaim the money so disbursed from the state of which he was a subject. It might, however, recover the money afterwards either from the person himself or his relations, and the states undertook to help each other mutually in such reclamations.

Changes made in 1867.

The Law of Free Settlement.

In the year 1867 the Reichstag of the North German Confederation passed the Law of Free Settlement ("Gesetz über die Freizügigkeit") by which every German has the right to establish himself wherever he chooses within the German dominions, to purchase property and enter into any lawful commerce or trade, without reference to his religion or his origin. Neither the authorities of the district he leaves, nor those of the district he elects to settle in have any right to interfere, unless in certain cases specially provided for; e.g., the authorities may demand proof that the new comer is bona fide a German subject, or that he is a free agent (*i.e.* not under guardianship nor under police supervision). Confirmed beggars and vagrants may also be refused settlement, as well as those who have evidently no means of obtaining lodging and food for themselves and families. If, however, the new comer has means of subsistence, although only of a precarious nature, he cannot be refused settlement on the ground that he may hereafter become destitute. Prospective or possible poverty is no bar to settlement.

Difficulties arising from new law.

This law increased immensely the difficulty of deciding on the chargeability of persons who became destitute; for, while allowing every North German to settle where he pleased within the federal dominions, it left to the legislature of each separate state to decide what length of residence was necessary to acquire a settlement, or how long a person might be absent without losing it.

Thus, for instance, three years residence in a district, or three years absence from it, sufficed to obtain or lose a settlement in Prussia according to the former Poor Law of December 1842, which continued in force till the end of last June; whereas the laws of

Years.

Mecklenburg required a residence of	-	-	2
Anhalt, Lubeck, Oldenburg	-	-	3
Saxony, Waldeck, Lippe, Hanover	-	-	5
Brunswick	-	-	6
Weimar and Schwarzburg		-	10
Schleswig-Holstein	-	-	15

before a settlement was acquired.

In Prussia and in Waldeck alone could a settlement, when once acquired, be lost by mere absence from the district for a term of years; in the other states it could only be lost by special renunciation.

The unfairness and inconvenience of this state of things was specially brought to the notice of the Federal Council in 1868 by the Mecklenburg plenipotentiary.

He complained that while, according to the laws then in force, in the duchies of Mecklenburg, settlement was acquired by a

simple residence of two years, and once obtained was not forfeited by absence (no matter for how long a period) from the district; no length of mere residence in Hamburg gave a settlement there unless the person had been expressly admitted as a citizen of the town, which could only be done after a residence of five years and the payment of a certain amount of fees greater than working people were usually willing to pay.

The case, therefore, stood as follows between Hamburg and Mecklenburg:—

A Hamburg citizen, who resided in Mecklenburg for two years, would acquire a domicile there which he never would lose by subsequent departure from the duchies; and, in case he fell into distress, no matter where, the Mecklenburg district would be bound by law to support him. In Hamburg, on the contrary, a Mecklenburg subject would find himself in a very different position; for, after having worked the best years of his life, and contributed for a long period to the communal taxes of Hamburg, he would be liable to be turned out of the town if he became destitute, and have to seek for relief from the district in Mecklenburg to which he originally belonged, but to which he had never, or at least not for a long time, contributed a farthing.

In order to remedy this state of things, and to introduce uniformity of practice with regard to the acquirement of domicile, the Federal Government presented a bill to the Reichstag in 1869 by which settlement was to be acquired (or lost) throughout the North German Confederation by a residence (or absence) of three years after the 24th year of age, except in the case of natives of the state in which settlement was desired.

Thus, for instance, in Mecklenburg a Prussian, or other North German, would acquire settlement in three years, and a Mecklenburger in two years, the latter being the period of residence required by the laws of Mecklenburg; while in Hanover, a Prussian, or other North German, would equally acquire settlement in three years, and a Hanoverian would only acquire it in five years as stipulated by the law of Hanover; and so on for the inhabitants of each state according to its peculiar laws.

The Reichstag rejected this proposal as being too complicated, and as more likely to increase than diminish the existing confusion; and, instead, decided simply that after 24 years of age a residence of two years in a district sufficed to establish settlement, and an absence of two years sufficed to lose it.

This is the basis of the law of relief domicile ("Unterstützungswohnsitz Gesetz") which passed originally by the Reichstag of the North German Confederation on June 6 1870, has now become the fundamental law on which the entire system of poor relief throughout the empire will be based. It is already in force since the 1st of July last in the countries which formed the North German Confederation, and it is to come into operation in the kingdom of Würtemberg and the grand duchy of Baden on the 1st of January next.

This federal law of 1870 merely laid down the general principles

Remedy pro-
posed to Reichs-
tag.

Federal Law
1870.

PRUSSIA.**Prussian Law
of 1871.**

**Review of the
system es-
tablished by
the laws of 1870
and 1871.**

Right to relief.

**No obligation
to provide
religious help.
Local unions.**

**Provincial
unions.**

**Denomina-
tional estab-
lish-
ments.**

**Details of ad-
ministration
left to each
state.**

**Prussian ad-
ministrative
system.**

on which domicile was to be acquired or lost and on which relief was to be given; but it left to the Parliament of each separate state to frame the more minute regulations necessary for the proper carrying out of the details.

As regards the kingdom of Prussia this has been done by the law passed by the Prussian Diet on the 31st of March last, known as the "Ausführungs Gesetz" or supplementary law for giving practical effect to the stipulations of the federal law passed the year before by the Reichstag.

It appears to me, therefore that the best way of giving an idea of the present system of poor relief in Germany is to review briefly the principle provisions of these two laws, with the remark, however, that it is only the stipulations of the federal law which are applicable everywhere, those of the supplementary law having effect only in the Prussian dominions.

In execution of Art. 1st of the federal law, which prescribes that every German is to be treated in every state of the Confederation as a native, and is to receive the same assistance in case of distress, Art. 1st of the Prussian supplementary law says:—

"Every German has in case of distress the right to demand of his commune a roof, the absolute necessities of life, medical attendance in case of illness, and in case of death a suitable burial."

"Relief may be granted either by admission into a poor house or hospital, or by allotting work proportioned to the strength of the pauper either in such an institution or out of it."

"Poor relief institutions are not obliged to pay for any spiritual attendance on paupers."

The federal law prescribes that for purposes of poor relief the whole country shall be divided into local unions, ("Ortsarmenverbände") consisting as the case may be either of one single property, one single commune, or of several properties or communes joined together; and, moreover, in order to provide for the relief of those who have no fixed domicile in any local union, it creates also provincial unions ("Landarmenverbände") whose special duty it is to assist such persons as cannot properly be made chargeable to any particular commune.

It prescribes, moreover, that those relief institutions, which admit members of their own religion only, and of which there are many in Prussia, are not to be considered poor relief institutions within the meaning of the law.

It leaves to each separate country the task of legislating for itself on the constitution and administration of these unions, on the nature of the relief to be given, on the manner in which the necessary funds shall be raised, and on the relations between the local and provincial unions.

The supplementary law places the direction of poor relief throughout the Prussian dominions in the hands of the chief communal authorities, as regards communes—(when the union, as sometimes is the case, consists of only a single property, then the proprietor is responsible for the administration of proper relief), leaving them the right to elect, if they judge it convenient, a smaller

number from their own body to form a Special Relief Committee, the chairman of which is usually the burgomaster. In addition to the communal authorities other inhabitants may also be called upon in certain cases to sit on this committee.

Every member of a commune is bound, when elected, to accept office, without salary, in the Communal Relief Committee for three years, or for such longer period as may be laid down in the communal regulations.

The only valid causes of exemption are:—1st. Continued ill-health. 2nd. Affairs requiring frequent or long absence. 3rd. Being more than 60 years of age. 4th. Being charged with some other public office. And 5th. Special reasons to be judged of in each case by the representatives of the commune.

Any person refusing to act without good excuse loses his vote in communal affairs for from three to six years, and is liable to from an eighth to a fourth higher direct communal taxes. The decision of such cases lies in the hands of the communal representatives, subject, however, to the ratification of the higher authorities.

Directors of private charitable institutions are bound, when called upon, to state what amount of relief they may have given to any individual belonging to the union, but a special demand must be made in each case; they are not obliged to furnish a general report on all the persons receiving charity at their hands. In case of non-compliance within 14 days, a fine of 10 thalers (30s.) may be inflicted.

When the local union consists not of one commune, as is usually the case in the Prussian dominions, but of several different districts united together, the direction of poor relief is confided to a committee composed of at least one member from each district, elected by the communal representatives for terms of not less than three or more than six years. This committee chooses its own chairman. The expenses are divided in proportion to the produce in each district of the classification and income taxes, half the trade tax and half the ground and building tax.

Such property only is rated as is actually situated within the jurisdiction of the commune.

In Westphalia, the Rhine provinces, and parts of Hanover and of Schleswig-Holstein, there existed formerly communities for poor relief ("armen communen") possessed of property left for charitable purposes, and which relieved, irrespective of religion, all cases of distress arising within their district. As, however, the Federal law prescribes that the political division of the commune, or a group of several communes, shall form the basis of the division of the empire for relief purposes, and as these communities for poor relief did not correspond with such an arrangement, they are suppressed by the supplementary law, and their funds allotted to the communes in which they had existed, in proportion to the amount calculated to have been originally subscribed by each, the communes being bound to devote such funds exclusively to relief of distress.

Local unions consisting of different communes.

Rating of property.

Certain existing institutions suppressed.

PRUSSIA.
—
Provincial unions.

Form of administration.

State control.

Rules respecting settlement.

The Prussian supplementary law adds six new provincial unions to those which already existed, making altogether, in the whole kingdom, 36. These are of very different sizes, in some cases having merely the extent of a single town, as Berlin, Potsdam, Breslau, Königsberg, Frankfort-on-the-Main, and Frankfort-on-the-Oder; in other cases embracing whole provinces, such as Hanover, Posen, Schleswig-Holstein, and Westphalia.

When these provincial unions consist only of a single town, the poor relief is managed simply by the ordinary communal representatives; otherwise, a separate royal decree prescribes for each union the manner in which it is to be administered; but as a general rule, the "Bezirks Regierung" (Provincial Government) is charged with the duty of seeing to the proper disposal of the funds. The expenses are borne by the different parts of each union in proportion to the direct state taxes collected therein.

As regards the general control exercised by the State, it is limited to a right, varying according to the communal charter of each district, of supervision over the local unions, in order to verify the disposal of any special fund devoted to charitable purposes.

There is nothing in Prussia answering to the English Poor Law Board, and the Government has no direct power of interference with the different communes in their way of administering relief. It is true that the Minister of the Interior has a sum placed at his disposal by the Prussian Diet (amounting for this year to 96,316*l.*) for charitable purposes, which he distributes, through the governors of the various provinces, to such local unions as may be especially hard pressed by pauperism, and therefore unable to meet their engagements, or to such deserving persons as may be particularly recommended to him. But as by far the largest portion of this sum is to be devoted to the children and widows of soldiers killed in battle, the amount left for the relief of general distress is inconsiderable.

The Government has also, under the common law of Prussia, a right of general supervision over any private charitable institution which may be founded by legacy or otherwise, and no such institution can be established without its sanction. As a matter of fact, however, the Government interferes as little as possible in their management.

The federal law, as I have already stated, prescribes that a voluntary residence of two years (after the age of 24 years) within the limits of any union gives the right of settlement there. A reservation, however, is made that time spent in a hospital or in a gaol, or during which assistance from a poor relief institution has been enjoyed, does not count towards acquiring right of domicile in the union where such hospital, gaol, or institution may be situated. In case of imprisonment after arrival in a locality, the time during which the imprisonment lasts is not to be counted towards acquiring domicile, but the period elapsed before it commenced is to be added to such period of residence after it ceased as together will make up two years.

The same rule applies to persons who after arriving in a locality have subsequently to serve there as soldiers.

During this period of two years short temporary absences are admissible.

By marriage the woman acquires immediately the domicile of her husband, and keeps it in case of divorce or widowhood so long as she does not acquire settlement elsewhere, but in case of desertion she may acquire a fresh one during his life. Legitimate children have the domicile of their father, illegitimate children that of their mother, until they are of an age to acquire one for themselves. If, however, a widow acquires a new domicile after her husband's death, her legitimate children share it also. The same rule applies in the case of a woman legally divorced, when the children are left in her care.

Rules similar to those explained above are applicable, according to the federal law, to loss of domicile. It is forfeited by a voluntary absence of two years, after 24 years of age.

The federal law prescribes that any German in distress must Federal regulations respecting relief. in the first instance be relieved by the local union in which he happens to become destitute. The expenses incurred may afterwards be recovered from the union to which he is properly chargeable, except in the case of servants, apprentices, and journeymen, who, in case of sickness, have a right to support and medical treatment, for any period not exceeding six weeks, from the union in which they may be employed at the time of falling ill. If their illness lasts more than six weeks, the expenses for the extra time may be claimed from the unions to which they belong, provided that due notice be given to the union concerned seven days before the end of the six weeks. If this is not done, the expenses cannot be claimed except from the seventh day after that on which notification may have been made to the union concerned.

When the pauper has a domicile, the local union to which he belongs has to refund the expenses incurred in his relief; but when he has no such domicile, these expenses are to be defrayed by the provincial union in which he is when he becomes destitute; or, in case he is turned in a destitute condition out of a prison, hospital, or lunatic asylum, the provincial union from which he was admitted has to pay for his maintenance.

The expenses of maintenance are calculated at the rate per diem laid down in the dietary of the relieving union (usually about 8d. a day for an ordinary, and 18d. for a sick pauper), but nothing beyond is allowed towards its establishment expenses; and in case any local union should be unable to meet the demands thus made on it, the provincial union in which it is situated has to make up the deficiency. The relations, however, can be called upon to refund, or, at least, contribute towards, what has been expended on a pauper, if they are in a position to do so. Relationship, according to the Prussian supplementary law, includes husband, wife, both parents for legitimate children, and the mother for illegitimate children. In Berlin, however, and probably the case is similar

Scale for recovery of expenses.

Relations of paupers have to refund.

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removal of paupers.

also in some other unions, the communal law adds to the above relations, full and half brothers and sisters, grandchildren, and the father of illegitimate children. The police are bound to afford every assistance to the unions in discovering whether any such relations exist, and what means they have to dispose of.

In case of permanent or prolonged destitution the union to which he belongs is bound to accept the pauper, and to defray the expenses of his journey, but if, through delay on the part of the relieving union, he be not sent off at once, the latter cannot claim repayment of the expenses incurred for his relief during the days thus lost.

The Prussian supplementary law further prescribes that in case a German subject, not having a fixed domicile, shall be sent home by order of a foreign Government, he is to be relieved, in case of necessity, by the provincial union in which he was last domiciled; or, in case such a place cannot be found, by the provincial union in which he becomes destitute.

Claims for repayment must be made within six months.

As regards recovery from another union of the expenses incurred in relieving its paupers, the federal law prescribes that claims for repayment must be made within six months, and the answer thereto must be given within 14 days after receipt.

"Domicile deputations."

In order to decide differences between unions as to settlement and chargeability, and also to settle disputes between unions and private individuals called upon to pay for relief given to some relation in distress, the Prussian supplementary law created boards called Domicile Deputations ("Deputation für das Heimathswesen"), and by a Royal decree, dated April 22 1871, 14 such deputations were established :—

- At Königsberg for East Prussia.
- At Marienwerder for West Prussia.
- At Berlin for Brandenburg.
- At Stettin for Pomerania.
- At Posen for Posen.
- At Breslau for Silesia.
- At Merseburg for Saxony.
- At Schleswig for Schleswig-Holstein.
- At Münster for Westphalia.
- At Hanover for Hanover.
- At Cassel for Hesse.
- At Wiesbaden for Nassau.
- At Cologne for Rhine Provinces.
- At Sigmaringen for Hohenzollern.

Composition of the board.

Each of these deputations is composed of a judicial and an administrative official, named by the King of Prussia for the duration of their service in the district, and of three other members, elected for a term of three years. The chairman of the deputation and his substitute are named by the King, and a substitute is named or elected, as the case may be, for each of the members.

The two official members and one other member suffice for a quorum. If four members are present, the youngest in age takes no

part in a division. The elected members receive a stipend fixed by the provincial representatives, but all other expenses of the committee are borne by the State.

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When a complaint is made to this deputation, it forwards it to the union concerned, which must send in its answer within four weeks at latest. Any complaint not answered within that period is considered proved, and judgment pronounced accordingly. If it be thought necessary, the answer is communicated to the union which made the complaint, which must then, under the same penalty, send in its reply within four weeks. At the request, however, of the parties these terms can be prolonged.

Mode of procedure.

The deputation can institute local inquiries, and examine witnesses on oath, and can collect evidence in whatever way it considers best. Judgment is finally given in an open sitting, to which both contending parties must be invited, with the warning that if they do not appear judgment will be given all the same. The defeated party bears the costs of witnesses, and pays the fee to the deputation, which is in no case to exceed 3*l*. The expenses of the deputation are defrayed by the money thus obtained, and whatever surplus may remain is divided among the different provincial unions of the district.

There is an appeal from these deputations to the Federal Office Highest court for Domicile ("Bundesamt für Heimathwesen"), which sits at Berlin, and consists of a chairman and four members, named for life by the President of the Federal Council, but proposed to him by the council. This being a German and not merely a Prussian institution is governed entirely by the federal law of 1870. Three form a quorum, and in case of an even number of members assisting at a meeting, the last appointed has no vote. Judgment is given in open court, and there is no appeal to any higher tribunal.

The members of this supreme board of appeal are already named, and Herr König, of the Foreign Department, has been appointed chairman; but it can be hardly said to have, as yet, really begun its functions.

There is a clause of the Prussian supplementary law establishing in each circle ("Kreis"), a commission whose duty it is to endeavour to arrange disputes between Prussian unions without going to the Domicile Deputations. It consists of the "Landrath" (an official answering to the Sous-Préfet in France) as chairman, and of two members elected for three years by the diet of the circle ("Kreistag"); and its mode of procedure is similar to that of the Domicile Deputation, with the addition, however, of an appeal to that board.

Arbitration boards in Prussia.

By Art. 64 of the Prussian supplementary law, foreigners, so long as they are allowed to remain in the country, have the same rights as natives as to acquisition and loss of domicile and in respect to relief when destitute. As, however, destitute foreigners are usually sent home as soon as possible to their own country, they derive but little benefit from this provision. There are several special conventions on this subject with foreign powers.

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No uniformity
of system
throughout
Germany as to
relief.

Relief usually
outdoor.

No general
statistics.

Return of
exemptions
from class tax.

It will be seen from the sketch which I have here given of the federal and Prussian laws, that uniformity of practice has been established in Germany merely as regards acquisition and loss of domicile, and as regards the general obligation of each district to relieve destitution. No attempt has yet been made to introduce any uniform mode of relieving the poor or of levying the necessary funds.

This is left entirely to the choice of the different local diets and corporations, and as there are probably some 800 local poor law unions throughout the Prussian dominions alone, it is impossible to attempt any analysis of their modes of proceeding.

I am informed, however, that as a general rule, assistance is given in the shape of out-door relief, and that a considerable number of the local unions have no special workhouses or hospitals of their own. They unite together to build one, or very often the country unions put their paupers into hospitals, &c., in towns, paying so much a day for their keep.

It is a curious fact that no general statistics on a uniform system should as yet have been gathered respecting pauperism, its movements and progress, in a country where everything connected with social and political development is so closely studied as it is here. I believe the explanation of this to be that, as each commune would start from a more or less different basis, it has been feared that their returns would be founded on such different principles as to be incapable of being worked up into any useful statistical form.

I am informed by Herr Ober Regierungs Rath Dr. Engel, the able director of the Statistical Office, to whose kindness and civility so many members of Her Majesty's Embassy have been already indebted, that query papers have now been sent to the various towns, districts, &c., in which, amongst several other things, they are asked what sums they have spent during the year on hospitals, poor relief, &c., but no allusion is made to the number or condition of the persons relieved.

Although, however, accurate statistics on these points are not to be got at, I think an approximate idea may be obtained of the number of paupers in Prussia, as constituted before the war of 1866, from the accompanying table taken from the work of Herr Emminghaus above referred to.

It gives the number of persons officially declared to have been exempted in virtue of the law of 1851 from paying the classification tax on account of their being paupers in receipt of public charity.

Year.	Number of Persons exempted from Class Tax.		Total.	Per cent. of Population.
	Under 16 Years.	Over 16 Years.		
1860	319,886	215,044	534,930	8·4
1867	295,456	190,728	486,179	2·9

The following table, taken from the same source, gives the sums expended in poor relief in 1849, and although it is of too old a date to be of much practical value at present, it is still of some interest, as being the only one existing which shows the sources from which the money expended in relief has been obtained, and how much on an average has been received by each pauper.

For ease of reference I have converted the Prussian currency, given by Herr Emminghaus, into pounds sterling, at the usual current rate of six thalers 20 groschens to the pound.

	Amount expended.			Per-cent-age of Expenses covered by			Average		
	Out-door Relief.	In-door Relief.	Total.	Communal Funds	Foundations,	Private Funds.	Amount received by each Pauper.	Pounds paid per Head of Population.	
Large towns -	£ 205,569	£ 210,813	£ 416,382	59·83	30·18	9·99	£ 1 16 8½	£ 0 0 10	
Middle-sized towns -	73,345	43,436	116,781	59·66	32·24	8·10	1 4 6½	0 1 10	
Small towns -	44,237	14,486	58,723	58·36	29·54	12·10	0 18 7	0 0 10½	
Districts -	207,470	22,840	230,310	63·39	13·85	22·76	0 15 1½	0 0 4½	
Total Kingdom	530,622	291,575	822,197	60·69	25·86	13·45	1 1 2	0 1 9	

I may add that Herr Justiz Rath Rocholl (in the introduction to his work "System des Deutschen Armen Pflegerechts," of which the first part only has as yet been published), says that it was calculated some years ago that the various countries of Germany contained from 800,000 to 900,000 paupers, but he does not say how the numbers stand at present. All my endeavours to obtain any reliable statistics on this point have been in vain.

Rough estimate
of number of
paupers in
Germany.

It appears to me therefore that, as no trustworthy returns are to be procured applicable even to the whole kingdom of Prussia, much less to the whole empire of Germany, the best plan for me to pursue will be to confine the rest of this Report to an explanation of the mode adopted in this city for the relief of destitution.

The city of Berlin at present forms in itself a local union and a provincial union : that is to say that, although it has but one single administration, it has the rights and duties of both unions as defined in the Federal and Prussian laws of which I have just given a sketch.

Since the year 1693 when the elector first named a commission of clerical and lay functionaries to superintend the poor relief institutions of Berlin, the capital has had a separate poor administration of its own distinct from the rest of the country. In 1695 a notification was issued inviting all poor and sick persons to come twice in the week to the town hall for relief, and a collection was made every week from house to house, the proceeds of which were

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devoted to the relief of distress. This was the origin of the still existing central poor fund ("Haupt Armen Kasse"). In 1699, the first free schools were established. From that period to 1820 no great change took place; the commune subscribed to the poor fund of its own accord, but was in no way forced to do so.

Present system. On the 1st of January 1820, however, the whole system was altered. By a royal decree, dated May 3rd 1819, the entire charge of the poor was thrown on to the commune, and to it were also given the workhouse and the three hospitals then existing.

Regulations for guidance of relieving officers.

I have received through the kindness of Herr Stadtrath Schreiner, the chairman of the "Armen Direction," the board to which the entire administration of official relief is confided in Berlin, the regulations which have been laid down for the guidance of the relieving officers and other persons employed by the commune. These regulations are extremely minute and complete, but as they consist of 308 paragraphs and cover 111 octavo sheets of print, it is impossible in this Report to give more than a very brief analysis of their provisions.

Head Poor Committee.

The supreme control of the poor administration of Berlin is confided by the commune to a committee called the "Armen Direction" (head committee for poor) composed of 32 persons, viz :—

- 11 magistrates, named by the burgomaster.
- 11 town councillors, elected by the town council.
- 7 citizens elected by the town council from amongst all citizens having a vote.
- 2 physicians.
- 1 clergyman.

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Previous to the year 1853 there were none but unpaid members; but now four paid assessors have been added as great inconvenience was found to arise from the constant changing of the members, there being thus no means of exercising a continued and watchful control over those who were receiving relief. Economy and a more satisfactory discharge of the business have resulted from this change.

Sub Poor Committee.

Under this head committee are 116 sub-committees ("Armen Commissionen") each taking charge of a special part of the town. These sub-committees vary in size according to circumstances, but have each from 15 to 30 members. The members, all of whom (with three exceptions, the chairmen of the three poorest districts) are unpaid, are elected for six years by the town council; and every citizen of Berlin is obliged when called upon to accept office for at least the first half of that period, under the penalties which I have described as being laid down in the Prussian supplementary law. After three years he can obtain exemption by giving two months notice; and any member changing his house and leaving that special quarter of the town immediately loses his seat on the committee. The district superintendent ("Bezirk Vorsteher"), as well as the town councillor, of the quarter are "ex

"officio" members of the sub-committee situated in it. The clergyman of the parish is invited to attend the meetings, but has no vote unless he has been regularly elected a member. Each sub-committee elects its own chairman for two years, subject to the ratification of the head committee.

The chairmen of all the sub-committees meet once a month at the town hall to transact business with the head committee. The Duties of the chairman. chairmen are all bound to attend these monthly meetings, and in case of illness or other valid excuse, must send some other member of their sub-committee to represent them; and, if a chairman wishes to absent himself from Berlin for any length of time, he must obtain the permission of the head committee to name another chairman in his place.

The duties of the sub-committees are to discover and assist those who may be in distress, to procure medical advice for them gratis, as well as admission into hospitals for those who require it, to collect money from house to house and in the churches, to grant free burials; and, finally, in case of the death of a pauper, to watch over the rights of the commune by seeing whether he has not left some sort of property, no matter how small; for according to the law of Prussia, and I believe the legislation of most German states to be similar, relief granted to a pauper is always looked upon in the light of a loan to be afterwards recovered, if possible, from himself or his relations. Therefore, in case of death the commune inherits whatever assets the pauper may have left, as well as any rights he may have had as heir-at-law to other property, and claims repayment to the full extent of what it has disbursed for him.

The commune thus frequently comes into possession of pieces of furniture, beds, tools, &c., which it afterwards makes use of by lending to deserving persons in distress. If, however, the pauper leaves a wife or children, the commune does not get everything, it gets only a share. During the year 1870 the sums thus inherited by the commune of Berlin amounted altogether to 437L. Amount inherited in 1870.

The chairman of each sub-committee divides his district among the various members in such a way that each member has a certain number of houses allotted to him, for the poor in which he is entirely responsible; and it is the duty of the chairman to see that this duty is properly attended to.

Committeemen who are owners of house property are not competent to take cognizance of claims brought forward by their own tenants; nor are they to be employed in distributing relief to them.

Each sub-committee receives from the head committee a fixed sum, usually 15s. a month, for office expenses; and besides that, a sum to be expended in relief which is calculated on its usual requirements; but on special application being made for it, more can be obtained from the same source.

The chairman keeps the register and correspondence and acts as treasurer. The head committee provides him with stationery and forms.

Right of commune to any assets left by deceased paupers.

Division of sub-committees.

House owners cannot act in regard to their tenants.

Modes of payment.

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Periods for meeting.	
Denominational charities.	As the French Protestants, the Roman Catholics and the Jews have private charitable institutions very largely endowed, the sub-committees are expressly cautioned not to give relief to persons belonging to those communities, until they have brought certificates from the above institutions proving the applicants to be really destitute and not in receipt of anything from them.
Admission into the workhouse.	Only in cases of necessity are paupers to be admitted into hospitals or the workhouse; relief is given in money or in kind. The object of the authorities is to avoid, as far as possible, severing families, or doing anything which tends to diminish the feeling of independence and self reliance; every effort is made to induce those in distress to regard the public charity which they receive as merely a temporary loan, subsidiary to whatever little they can still earn by their own exertions.
Money payments.	Money allowances are paid to the recipient only by a member of the sub-committee of the district in which the recipient resides.
Admission to workhouse considered as punishment.	If the sub-committee discovers that women in receipt of public charity lead immoral lives or harbor bad characters, it is instructed either to discontinue the allowance; or if that can not be done, to send them into the workhouse; or to give them relief in the most inconvenient and disagreeable form.
Change of lodgings.	When a person in receipt of public charity changes his residence from one quarter of the town to another, he takes a certificate from the sub-committee whose district he leaves to the sub-committee of the district he goes to, in order that the latter should continue the allowance.
Soup kitchens.	The sub-committees give tickets to the free soup kitchens, of which there are 12 altogether in Berlin, and which are at present issuing 4,700 portions daily amongst the deserving poor. Each ticket is numbered and registered; and if not duly presented at the proper kitchen at the proper hour, the person loses all claim to future assistance.
Potato ground.	The sub-committee has also another way of helping the poor, viz., by recommending them for a share in the potato ground, which the commune lets out at a reduced rent, already manured. In 1870, about 210 acres were in this way divided amongst 2,082 persons; and in 1871, 182 acres amongst 1,686 persons, at a loss to the commune of 611 <i>l.</i> 15 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> for 1870, and of 521 <i>l.</i> 3 <i>s.</i> for 1871. Each person pays a rent of 9 <i>s.</i> for his share of the ground.
Medical relief.	Paupers requiring medical aid must get a ticket from the sub-committeeman of their quarter, filled up with the name of the doctor and the hour of consultation, which they must then take to the chairman of the sub-committee to countersign. Only in case of urgent necessity can this formality be dispensed with, or the doctor required to go to the pauper's lodging. There are 47 medical districts in Berlin, each under charge of a doctor appointed

by the commune, and who receives on an average a salary of 60*l.* PRUSSIA. a year.

Journeymen, apprentices, and workers in factories are obliged to subscribe to benevolent societies, which must support them in case of illness, thus preventing their becoming chargeable to the commune. Moreover, masters must pay for any servant falling ill while in their service, unless, of course, they can find some relation of the sick servant on whom to throw the burthen.

Midwives are retained by the commune to attend any poor person for a fee of 1*s.* 6*d.* for the confinement. Any woman who chooses has in the eighth month of her pregnancy the right to claim admission into the Royal Lying-in Hospital without any previous formality whatever.

Free burial is also given to paupers, but the expense in each case is not to exceed 32*s.*; and, as an instance of how minute the communal instructions are, I may mention that they precise exactly how this sum is to be made up, including 6*d.* drink money to the hearse-driver, while for laying out the corpse 1*s.* is allowed.

The regulations of which I have thus given a brief abstract refer chiefly to out-door relief. I shall now proceed to explain what means the commune disposes of for in-door relief.

Before, however, entering into these details I must call attention to the great difference which exists between Germany and England with regard to the workhouse ("arbeitshaus"). In this country the workhouse is not exclusively, nor indeed principally, an institution for the relief of the destitute. It has much more the character of a modified house of correction, and is principally used by the police, who can order vagrants, tramps, or drunkards to be confined there for any period from one day to two years. The only paupers sent there are, with very few exceptions indeed, either drunkards or idiots, to whom it would be useless to give any kind of out-door relief, and who would squander in a few days any money which the poor committees might give them. A large portion, moreover, of the Berlin Workhouse is at present set apart for the reception of families of working men who may be turned out of their lodgings before they can possibly find others to go into, a frequent occurrence, unfortunately, of late years in this city, where, in consequence of the sudden great increase of the population, house rent has risen enormously, and the demand for better class houses is so great, that speculators never think of building any for those who are able to pay only very small rents.

When I visited the workhouse here a few days ago, I found 62 families, amounting altogether to 222 persons, who had availed themselves of this refuge. They had most of them been there since the 1st of October (the date from which leases usually begin here), and the director informed me that he saw but little hope of getting rid of them before the 1st of April (the other half-yearly date for leases), when, of course, a large number of fresh families would be most probably turned out of their present lodgings into the street, and have also to be provided with a roof by the commune.

Difference
between
England and
Germany.

Houseless
families.

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On the 1st of October over 600 persons thus fell to the charge of the town, most of whom, however, were soon provided with shelter elsewhere, and the 222 whom I saw were those for whom it had been impossible yet to find anything. Of this number only four were men; for it is the custom, when families are temporarily taken into the workhouse, for the males to continue at whatever work they have been employed at, which they could not do if they went into the house, and, as single men, they find a roof easier than they could with their families.

These families are kept quite apart from the other inmates of the workhouse, and the children under six years have a better class of food given to them. Their food costs $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day each to the commune, while that of the ordinary paupers in the workhouse costs $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day for those in health, and $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day for those who are on the sick list.

Workhouse paupers made to work.

The members of these houseless families work only for themselves, look after the children, &c., but the ordinary paupers, when able-bodied, are made to work for the house. The baking and wood cutting for all the different communal establishments is done by the paupers. They are also employed in shoemaking and tailoring, and especially in cutting out the ornamental lace papers used by confectioners.

From these sources the workhouse earned in 1870 the sum of 1,418*l.* 8*s.*, and the director informed me that he calculated each able-bodied pauper brought in to the establishment $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day, while his food, clothing, &c., only cost $5\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day. A certain amount of work is allotted to each individual, and if he does extra work he is paid for it. Nearly all the able-bodied paupers thus earn something for themselves, half of which they are allowed to spend while in the house in the purchase of extra food; the other half accumulates, and is given to them the day they leave the establishment. I regret, however, to say that this reserve, amounting often to from 2*l.* to 4*l.*, seems to bring them little luck; for the director informed me that in most cases it was spent in the beer shops, and that in the course of a few weeks the same person was almost certain to be brought back for a fresh term of confinement.

Present work-house very inconvenient.

The present workhouse having now become too small for the increasing population of Berlin, and being, moreover, extremely ill-adapted to the use it is now put to, the town council has decided on building a new one outside the town. The average of persons in the workhouse on any day of 1870 was 558. When I went over it ten days ago there were 575, viz., 481 men and 94 women.

Religion.

As regards the religion of the inmates I could obtain no very accurate returns, but by far the greater majority are Protestants. In the "Filial Anstalt," a kind of hospital annexed to the poor house, there were, for instance, on that day—

Evangelical	-	-	-	292
Roman Catholic	"	-	-	17
Jew	"	-	-	1

There is a chapel attached to the house, in which the Evangelical service takes place twice a week, but only those belonging to that religion are obliged to attend. Roman Catholics or Jews are visited at regular intervals by clergymen of their own persuasion.

The aim of the German poor relief system is to avoid as long as possible sending paupers to the workhouse, and therefore, instead of sending orphans or destitute children there, they are sent to the orphan asylum at Rummelsburg, or, more usually still, are put out to nurse at the expense of the commune. A separate section of the head poor committee ("Armen Direction") is devoted to the control of this branch of the relief administration, and under it are about 100 orphan sub-committees, organised on the same plan as I have already explained for the poor committees. The number of orphans thus maintained by the commune in 1870 was 2,880, at a cost of about 18,440*l.*

In order not to add unduly to the length of this Report, I give in Statistics in the Appendix the various statistics which I have been able to gather on the state of pauperism in Berlin. They are taken from the last Report issued by the head poor committee, and from the "Städtisches Jahrbuch," vol. V.; but before submitting them, I must again call attention to the peculiar nature of poor relief here. It is as far as possible limited to giving sums subsidiary to other funds. Therefore, the sum put down as paid to any hospital, for instance, does not represent exactly what each hospital has spent; it merely represents the amount contributed by the commune towards that hospital for maintenance of paupers; but it does not include the money derived from legacies or foundations.

In order to make my meaning clearer, I will take as an example the Frederick William Hospital. It is the largest in this city for aged and disabled paupers, and is directly under the control of the head poor committee. When I visited it last week, it contained 521 inmates, of whom, however, only 452 were charged to the commune, the other 69 being paid for out of special foundations belonging to the hospital. The revenues of the latter, amounting to 1,650*l.* in the last year, and the expenses of the establishment amounting to 6,300*l.*, the result is that the commune has to add only 4,650*l.*, and the latter sum only will appear in the next official returns of the sums expended in poor relief.

Again, in the "Charité," the largest hospital of Berlin, the commune pays for each pauper whom it sends there at the rate of 1*s.* 6*d.* per day for each person afflicted with a bodily disease, and 2*s.* 6*d.* for each patient afflicted with mental disease; but the hospital in question derives funds also from other sources, so that the returns published do not really convey a correct idea of the state of the case.

There is not a single hospital now in Berlin which is exclusively maintained by the poor committee for its own use.

I have tried in vain to obtain any return, however general, of the number of persons in receipt of relief on any given day in ascertaining exact number

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—
of paupers in
Berlin.

Berlin. No such return has yet been made out, and it would be necessary for me to visit the books of all the different establishments throughout the town in order to get any exact idea on the subject. This being out of the question, I have endeavoured, by comparing the various statistics published for 1870, to obtain some notion of the number of individuals then in receipt of relief; but, although I have devoted every care and attention to it, I fear the table which I have prepared can only be looked upon as a rough approximation of the truth, for the materials from which I have drawn my information are not all made up for the same day of the year, nor always in similar form. There is no means of knowing how many of those returned as sick appear also in the return of poor; and the only regular record kept is of those who were in receipt of out-door pensions, or who were actually residing in the workhouse or other such institution. In the case of the casual recipients of extra out-door relief, no record is kept of the number of different persons receiving it; there is only a memorandum made of the number of separate payments.

I had hoped that, as a fresh census of Berlin was taken six weeks ago, I might have been able to get some information about the number of paupers, but I am told that no special returns will be made on the subject.

**PROBABLE NUMBER of PERSONS in Receipt of Relief in 1870,
when Population of Berlin was about 720,000 souls.**

Out-door Relief.

Regular pensioners	-	-	-	8,633
Children at nurse	-	-	-	4,380
Orphan children	-	-	-	2,375
Regular pensioners on poor fund	-	-	-	250
Casuals on poor fund	-	-	-	705
Regular pensioners on foundation fund	-	-	-	577
Casuals on foundation fund	-	-	-	377
Total in receipt of out-door relief			-	<u>17,297</u>

In-door Relief.

Inmates of workhouse	-	-	-	245
Do. Frederick William Hospital	-	-	-	466
Do. orphan asylums	-	-	-	582
Do. lunatic asylums	-	-	-	542
Add the out-door paupers	-	-	-	<u>1,835</u>
Total	-	-	-	<u>19,132</u>

or about $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the population.

The Sick Poor attended to at the Expense of the Poor
Committee in 1870.

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Out-door patients	-	-	-	47,190
In hospitals and infirmaries	-	-	-	18,925
Total	-	-	<hr/>	<hr/> <u>61,115</u>

or over 8 per cent. of the population.

The total sum spent in the relief of the above persons (exclusive of what was paid for by various special funds) amounted, as far as I can make out, to 170,960*l.*, and of this the actual sum charged to the commune, and paid for out of the communal treasury, was 156,200*l.*

Although I have endeavoured to be as brief as possible in giving Concluding the broad facts on which are based the varying systems of poor relief adopted in Germany, I find this Report has already become so lengthy as to prevent my doing more than mention that in Berlin, as in other parts of Germany, the legal provision for the support of the poor is largely supplemented by private charitable organization. This is, moreover, clearly evident from the explanations which I have already given; and I have the less difficulty in leaving the subject untouched, that a full Report on the Mendicity Society of Berlin is now being prepared for Her Majesty's Government.

In conclusion, I have only to add that I learn from all those with whom I have spoken on the subject that the out-door system works well; it encourages industry and independence, and prevents the demoralizing influence almost inseparable from confinement in workhouses as conducted in this country. The very large number of persons, however, required to control this relief is a cause of serious annoyance, and I am told it becomes every day more difficult for the head poor committee here to find people who are willing or able to give up so much of their time as is necessary for the purpose. In Berlin the number of paupers is decidedly increasing every day, although probably the proportions between pauperism and population have not as yet altered much from what they were before it became the thriving capital of the German Empire.

Berlin, 24 January 1872.

F. R. PLUNKETT,
Second Secretary,
H.B.M.'s Embassy.

PRUSSIA.

**VARIOUS RETURNS respecting the RELIEF of the POOR in
BERLIN during the Year 1870.**

Return of the Amount of Relief granted in Money to	Number of Persons relieved.	Number of the separate Payments.	Amount expended.	Average Amount per Month given to each Person.
Out-door paupers - -	8,633	100,924	£ s. d. 46,017 0 0	£ s. d. 0 8 10 per child. 0 4 4
Board for 4,880 children out at nurse paid to.	2,761	50,848	11,375 0 0	
Recipients of extra aid -	—	24,976	8,110 0 0	—
			176,748 65,502 0 0	
In the year 1869 - -	—	171,910	61,978 0 0	
In 1866 the out-door paupers numbered				
1867	"	"	- - -	7,152
1868	"	"	- - -	7,668
1869	"	"	- - -	8,020
1870	"	"	- - -	8,337
				8,633

Of these 8,633 out-door paupers,—

51 were under 20 years of age.

123 were between 20 and 30 years.

274	"	30	"	40	"
627	"	40	"	50	"
1,643	"	50	"	60	"
3,342	"	60	"	70	"
2,150	"	70	"	80	"
402	"	80	"	90	"
21	"	90	"	100	"

At the end of the year these 8,633 paupers were receiving monthly allowances as follows:—

465 were in receipt of	£	s.	d.	per month.
2,192	"	0	6	0
2,433	"	0	9	0
2,051	"	0	12	0
1,405	"	0	15	0
61	"	0	18	0
16	"	1	1	0
6	"	1	4	0
2	"	1	7	0
2	"	1	10	0

Children at
nurse.

For the 4,880 children out at nurse, the commune paid per month to 2,761 nurses sums varying from 3s. to 21s. per child, but in by far the largest number of cases from 4s. 6d. to 6s. per month per child.

The physicians of the poor committee attended to 47,190 out-door patients, at a cost to the commune of 6,406*L.* PRUSSIA
Of these patients, in round numbers,—

Medical relief.

80*1*/₂ per cent. were cured.

4 " " remained uncured; did not return.

5*1*/₂ " " died.

3 " " were still under treatment.

7 " " were transferred to the hospitals.

The commune of Berlin refunded to other poor relief unions Non-resident during 1870, for assistance given by them to paupers belonging to relief. the city, the sum of 835*L. 2s.*

RELIEF GIVEN WITHIN INSTITUTIONS.

EXPENSES incurred during 1870 for Sick Paupers.

Name of Hospital.	Average Number of Patients in Hospital each Day.	Money ex-pended during Year.	Amount of Money expended which was afterwards recovered back.	Number of sick paupers and amounts expended.
Royal Charité - - -	1,240	26,794 4 5	—	Per cent.
University Hospital - - -	35	947 8 0	—	25
Bethanien - - -	36	869 8 9	—	12
St. Hedwig's Infirmary - - -	36	801 12 6	—	31
Elizabeth Hospital (children) - - -	16	172 1 0	—	23
Elizabeth Infirmary - - -	61	1,258 14 0	—	3
Total - - -	1,424	80,838 8 8	—	14

18,119 sick paupers were altogether admitted to the above hospitals during the year, of which—

4,016 were sent by the poor committees.

599 were sent from other institutions.

2,943 were taken there by the police.

5,561 applied themselves for admission.

200 not accounted for in the return.

In addition to the above public hospitals there were various parish infirmaries to which the commune sent patients, at an expense usually of 15*s.* a month each.

There were on the last day of 1870 the following paupers at the charge of the commune:—

	No. of Persons.
In six parish infirmaries - - -	125
In the female infirmary - - -	105
And on the same day there were—	
In the Frederick William Hospital - - -	466
In the workhouse - - -	245

PUSSIA.LIST of other HOSPITALS, with Number of Patients on
last day of 1870.

Hospitals.					Number of Patients.
	-	-	-	-	
Weydinger Schreiner Institute	-	-	-	-	55
Hollmann's Institute	-	-	-	-	113
St. Nicholas Hospital	-	-	-	-	89
Servants Hospital	-	-	-	-	117
Holy Ghost Hospital	-	-	-	-	85
St. Gertrude Hospital	-	-	-	-	43
St. James's Hospital	-	-	-	-	21
Jerusalem Hospital	-	-	-	-	16
Total	-	-	-	-	539

Lunatics.

The commune on the last day of 1870 had the following number of lunatics to provide for, viz. :—

In the Charité, without counting those paid for by the foundation, according to its statutes	-	20
In the lunatic asylum	-	465
In private asylums	-	57
Total	-	542

Orphans.

On the same day it paid for the following number of orphans :—

In the Rummelsburg house	-	487
In the Berlin house	-	36
Put out to nurse	{ in Berlin	1,673
	in the country	684
		2,880

besides 59 others placed in different private institutions in or near Berlin.

Funded capital belonging to various foundations.

FUNDED CAPITAL belonging to various FOUNDATIONS, &c., under the Control of the Head Poor Committee at end of 1870.

	£	s.	d.
Central poor fund ("Haupt Armen Kasse")	-	-	11,617 10 0
Central foundation fund ("Haupt Stiftung's Kasse")	-	-	156,942 15 0
Belonging to the Frederick William Hospital	-	-	20,993 14 0
Belonging to the infirmary in Gitschuerstrasse	-	-	300 18 0
Belonging to the Frederick Orphan Home	-	-	26,291 8 0
Belonging to the workhouse	-	-	99 3 0
	<hr/>		
	216,245	8	0

Out of the revenues accruing from its share of the above, the central poor fund gave assistance in the form of monthly allowances to 250 poor persons, and, in the form of extraordinary gratuities, to 705 persons, at a total cost for the year 1870 of 2,423*l.* 5*s.*

And the central foundation fund, in the same way, monthly allowances to 577 persons, and extra gratuities to 377, at a total cost of 3,992*l.* 11*s.*

Name of Fund or of special Foundation.	Total spent in round Numbers.	Covered by Revenues of Establishment.	Added from the general Treasury of the Town.	Added from a special Division of the general Town Treasury.	Receipts and expenditure.
Central Poor Fund -	117,413	18,138	99,275	9,241	
Frederick Orphan Home -	25,551	5,459	20,042	2,275	
Workhouse and its annexes.	15,028	3,063	11,965	3,082	
Frederick William Hospital.	5,941	1,712	4,229	591	
Town Infirmary - -	1,685	278	1,356	144	
Total - -	165,568	28,650	186,867	15,888	

In 1869 an asylum was established to give a roof for the night Night refugees to houseless women, and in December 1870 a similar one was started for houseless men. At night they receive a soup; in the morning a cup of coffee; but they must not visit the asylum oftener than three times in a month.

	Persons.
Admitted in October 1870	- - 1,692
" November "	- - 1,320
" December "	- - 1,222
" January 1871	- - 5,077
" February "	- - 4,598
" March "	- - 4,435
" April "	- - 5,683
" May "	- - 5,359

This asylum is supported by voluntary contributions, and gets no subsidy whatever from the town.

I shall conclude these statistical notices with a copy of the budget of the central poor fund.

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Budget of the
Central Poor
Fund.

**BUDGET of the CENTRAL POOR FUND ("Haupt Armen Kasse")
for 1870.**

INCOME.	£ s. d.	DISBURSEMENTS.	£ s. d.
Interest on capital -	552 9 4	In ordinary money ad-	
Inherited from deceased paupers, fines, fees, &c.	725 8 8	vances to pensioners -	65,492 10 6½
Sums received from special sources -	4,426 19 0	Relief granted direct by Head Committee -	3,197 3 4½
Legacies and subscriptions -	8,724 12 7½	Relief granted from special funds -	2,183 5 7
Recovered from persons relieved or from relations -	8,684 11 1½	Repaid to other administrations -	885 1 5½
Extraordinary and miscellaneous -	24 6 7	Contributed towards soup kitchens, potato ground, &c. -	4,512 0 11
Total of receipts -	18,188 2 4	Funerals of paupers -	618 15 10½
Added from the general Communal Treasury to balance the deficit -	99,275 1 8	Doctors and surgeons salaries -	2,021 17 8
Total	117,418 4 0	Medicines and medical appliances -	4,299 1 0
		Transport of sick paupers to the hospital -	85 7 2
		Maintenance of paupers in establishments not belonging to the commune -	30,892 1 2½
		Allowances to charity school children, &c. -	725 2 7
		Expenses of administration -	2,125 19 3½
		Extraordinary and miscellaneous -	10 18 0
		Legacy charges -	58 17 6
		Total of regular budget -	117,058 2 2
		Disbursements not included in regular budget -	355 1 10
		Total	117,418 4 0

(Signed) F. R. PLUNKETT.

EXTRACT from the FEDERAL LAW GAZETTE of the NORTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION of 1870.

Law regulating the Chargeability of Paupers (Unterstützungswohnsitz), of 6th June 1870.

§ 1.

Every North German is to be considered as a native in each federal state :

- (A.) With reference to the mode and measure of relief to be granted from public sources;
- (B.) With reference to acquisition and loss of the right of being relieved at his place of residence.

§ 2.

Public relief for destitute North Germans is granted either by "Ortsarmenverbände" or by "Landarmenverbände." *

§ 5.

It is the duty of the County Poor Law Boards (Landarmenverbände) to undertake the relief of those destitute North Germans who are not chargeable to the District Board (Ortsarmenverband). Every federal state has accordingly, by the 1st July 1871, either to undertake the functions of such Boards or to see to the organization of well defined County Boards where such do not yet exist. Such, as a rule, comprise several Poor Law Districts, but may exceptionally be confined to the district of one "Ortsarmenverband."

§ 28.

Every destitute North German must, in the first instance, become chargeable to that district where he was at the time of his becoming destitute. The Poor Law Board of this district has, however, the right of demanding that the Poor Law Board to whom the pauper in question is properly chargeable should either refund the money spent in relieving him or else take charge of him themselves.

§ 29.

If persons in the position of servants, apprentices or operatives fall ill at the place of service, the Poor Law Board of such place is bound to give the necessary medical care and attendance. Repayment of costs or the taking charge of such persons by the Boards of their respective districts can only be demanded if the period of sickness has lasted more than six weeks, and only for the time beyond this period. Due notice must be given to the Board chargeable with them, at least seven days before the expiration of the six weeks' term, otherwise the return of costs can only be counted from the seventh day after the receipt of the notice.

Pregnancy is not to be considered as illness in the sense of the above declaration.

§ 30.

Repayment of costs of maintenance, in so far as, according to § 29, the destitute are not chargeable to the Poor Law Board of their place of service, may be demanded.

(A.) From the district Poor Law Board to which the pauper in question is properly chargeable;

* For the proper understanding of the two words "Ortsarmenverband" and "Landarmenverband," I would observe that the first means a small district comprising from one to three or four towns or villages. This district is bound to maintain all the poor belonging to it and having their home or "Heimath" in it. The "Landarmenverband" is a district for the same purpose, but comprising from twenty to forty or more towns and villages and therefore several "Ortsarmenverbände." In all cases where the smaller district cannot support its poor, the larger one is bound to do so. The whole kingdom of Saxony is now one "Landarmenverband," but it is proposed later to divide it into three or four.

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(B.) If he is not chargeable to any District Poor Law Board, from the County Poor Board in whose district he happened to be at the time of his becoming destitute ; or if he should be discharged destitute from a Penitentiary or Hospital or Asylum, from that County Poor Law Board from whose district he was first delivered over to said establishments.

The amount of costs has to be regulated on the principles which are observed in relieving the destitute in the district where the relief was provided, without taking into account the general costs of administration of the almshouses, and without charging for the services of the district physician, if a fixed salary is given to him for his attendance to the poor. For such expenses which occur repeatedly, and whose daily or weekly amount can be estimated en bloc, each federal state may frame a tariff, valid either for the whole territory or different for each district and the demands of repayment are then not to exceed the tabular rates laid down by that tariff.

§ 31.

The Board liable to the restitution of costs is bound to undertake the charge of a destitute North German, if the relief is necessitated by other reasons than those of a mere temporary inability to work.

§ 32.

The Poor Law Board of the district to which the destitute North German belongs, can demand his transport thither, except in the cases mentioned in §§ 55 and 56.

The said Board has to pay the costs of transport.

Should the demand of the Board not be complied with, or should there be any delay in the transport of the destitute person by the fault of the Board under whose temporary charge he is, the latter forfeits all claim to the restitution of those costs which may arise after the demand in question has been made; in the second case, however, the Board loses only the right of being reimbursed for those expenses which may occur during such period of delay.

§ 33.

Should a demand be made by any foreign authorities for the removal of a North German who is not chargeable to any particular Poor Law district, and should he be destitute at the time of his removal, or become so within seven days after his removal, the duty of taking charge of such a person or of restituting the costs of his maintenance lies with that Federal State within whose territory the district is situated to which he was last chargeable, with the proviso, that it shall be free to each Federal State, by territorial legislation, to charge the Poor Law Boards with this obligation.

§ 36.

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Each Poor Law Board is empowered to follow up its claims against another Poor Law Board in the manner indicated by this law before the authorities designated for this purpose.

§ 55.

It is permitted to those Poor Law Boards who are temporarily chargeable with destitute persons, to come to a permanent or temporary agreement on the question of removal with those Poor Law Boards to which the said destitute persons are properly chargeable, by stipulating that the destitute person or family shall remain in their actual abode for a fixed sum to be paid by the Poor Law Board to which the pauper in question is properly chargeable.

The authorities competent in the first instance are bound on appeal from either side to assist in bringing about such an agreement.

If the agreement has been drawn up in due form, execution may ensue upon such agreement.

§ 56.

Should the removal be attended with danger to the life or health of the person himself or of his family, or if his incapacity to work be brought about by wounds received or sickness caught in the discharge of military duty, or by some act of self-sacrifice, or, finally, if his removal from his actual domicile should be attended with a considerable degree of hardship, the authorities, competent in first instance in the Poor Law District in which he resides, may decide that he should be allowed to remain in his place of abode, even if no agreement as before-mentioned has been come to between the different Boards, upon payment of a fixed quota by that Poor Law Board to whom he is properly chargeable.

Against this decision, which can at any time be repealed if the presumptions cease under which it was delivered, either side have the right of appeal within fourteen days after it has been communicated to the parties. Should the contending Boards belong to one and the same Federal State, this appeal must go to the next highest court, but if they belong to different states, to the "Federal Court for Regulation of Questions of Domicile" (Heimathswesen). From this second decision there can be no appeal.

There can likewise be no appeal when the proposal of a Poor Law Board to whom a destitute person is properly chargeable, demanding that this person should for some of the above-mentioned reasons be allowed to remain at his place of abode, has been rejected by the competent court.

§ 59.

If the Board liable to costs can show by production of a certificate to this effect from the competent authorities, that it is wholly or partly unable to liquidate them, it becomes the duty of the Federal State to which it belongs, to see that directly or indirectly the payment should be effected.

PRUSSIA.**§ 61.**

The rights and obligations under this law affect only such cases as may arise between district and County Poor Law Boards and Federal States in question having reference to public relief.

The obligation of giving relief based upon other legal grounds (such as relationship, contract, the statutes of corporation or endowments, the relation between master and servant, &c.) is, consequently, not affected by the clauses of this law.

§ 62.

Every Poor Law Board is empowered to demand restitution of the sums spent in relieving a destitute person from a third party under the same circumstances and in the same measure as the person relieved had a just claim for relief upon that third party.

This claim cannot be contested on the ground of the supporting Board having a right to demand restitution of the sums in question from another Board.

§ 60.

Foreigners must primarily be supported by that Board in whose district they were at the time of becoming destitute. The Federal State in which this Poor Law District is situated is, however, bound to repay the costs or to undertake the charge of the destitute foreigner, with this proviso, that it is open to each state to transfer this obligation by territorial legislation to its own Poor Law Boards.

EXTRACT from the COLLECTION of LAWS and ORDERS in COUNCIL for the KINGDOM of SAXONY, of the year 1871.

Order in Council for the carrying out of the Federal Law concerning the Chargeability of Paupers, dated June 6th, 1870.

§ 10.

Destitute foreigners, so long as they have not been sent beyond the Frontiers, are to be supported by the Poor Law Board in whose district they have become destitute. The restitution of costs takes place in accordance with the provisions of § 5 of the present Order in Council.

REMARKS on the APPLICATION of STATE RELIEF in the CONSULAR DISTRICT of DANTZIG (PRUSSIA).

Impossibility of comparing English and Prussian poor relief.

If we try to realize the working of the system of state relief as practised in Prussia, we shall perceive that a comparison cannot be established between the condition of things in this respect, as it exists there, and in our own country; nor are the statistical figures to be got at, which would facilitate any deductions of this kind as regards the treatment of the poor in both countries.

The claims of immediate relief are settled by each community or parish within its boundaries in the country, and in towns by the municipal authorities ; and both the number of persons relieved and the expense incurred are not reported with sufficient regularity to the central or even to the provincial authorities, as the only particulars which come officially within their cognizance are those contributions which are paid out of the county or "kreis", budgets, for provincial institutions, such as lunatic asylums, &c., and the general expenditure for the relief of the poor, which appears as an item of expense in the budget of each town.

Another class of cases which comes before the superior authorities are disputes as to settlement of paupers, or as to accounts for disbursements incurred for any one of that class, and brought forward by one town or commune against another, or against private parties bound by law to support such relieved person or his family. All these cases come in the first instance before the "landrath" or bailiff of the "kreis" or county, and in some instances are carried for adjustment before the district board ; the latter having been lately reorganized under the new Poor Law of 1870.

By a reference to the social condition of the rural districts in this part of Prussia, we are able to perceive how it happens that the charges for the support of the poor are not so considerable as they are at home, and that many items escape the notice of statisticians.

On all larger estates the landlord is expected to provide employment, and in cases of necessity relief for all those individuals who are domiciled on his property. It is one of those burdens which can only be alleviated by constant attention to the habits of the labourers in his employment, and with the exercise of considerable discretion as to the admission on the estate of new individuals. I dare say in many cases it becomes a heavy charge on the estate, but the amount of which it is by no means easy to ascertain.

In a similar way, in rural parishes, where the land is in the hands of wealthy peasant freeholders, who combine to exercise a strict control, with a view to prevent the admission within the boundaries of any person likely to become chargeable to the commune, or what we should call the parish ; and I hear that their vigilance in this respect extends even to lodgers admitted by cottiers within the boundaries.

It must not be forgotten also that in this country the police may be easily set in motion to exercise a certain amount of pressure with a view to compel individuals whose residence is not desirable to move elsewhere.

There are hardly any industries in the province, and in the rural districts there is sufficient employment for able-bodied persons of both sexes. Moreover the usual diet of the working classes is very inferior in this country, both in quantity and in quality, to what it is in England, and a small gift in the shape of food is frequently a bar to the claim of official relief.

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Few cases come within the cognizance of the central or provincial authorities.

Disputes as to settlement.

Duties of landlords of large estates.

Action of freeholders.

Position and habits of the working classes.

PRUSSIA.

Indoor relief
the exception.

The latter consists generally of pecuniary assistance given monthly or weekly, and presupposes exertion on the part of the recipient and his family to eke out their sustenance. Indoor relief, with the exception of cases of disease or of orphan children, is quite rare, and is resorted to only with regard to vagrants and incorrigible paupers.

The same thing may be said of towns in this province. There also out-door relief is the rule, but it is limited within a very narrow range, exceeding only in very rare instances one thaler or three shillings a week, whilst in most cases the amount of relief is only one half of that sum per pauper.

It must be also observed that, except Dantzig, Dirschan, and Elbing, all the other towns, 51 in number, situated in West Prussia, partake of a rural character; and their inhabitants enjoy, to a considerable extent, the same facilities as the country people in following agricultural pursuits, and also in supplying their immediate requirements by cultivating for their own use a small plot of land with potatoes or other vegetables.

Statistics of pauperism are incomplete.

The statistics of pauperism in this district are rather incomplete, and, with the exception of those for Dantzig, are not of recent date. They show, however, that about 12,000 paupers were chargeable a few years ago to communal funds for that subdivision of West Prussia which is known by the name of the Dantzig district. Of these, 2,400 paupers were relieved in the town of Dantzig. About 8,400, or 2·2 per cent. of the population, are supposed to belong to the rural portions of the district, and to occasion a direct expense to the taxpayers of about 7,000*l.*; whilst 1,200 would have to be relieved in the ten smaller towns at an annual average charge of about 2,000*l.*, including in these sums those contributions which are paid to the Common West Prussian Fund under this head.

The ratio of pauperism in this district is stated as being between two and three per cent. of the population.

The population of West Prussia was in round figures 1,260,000 inhabitants; that of the Dantzig district alone 500,000; whilst the town of Dantzig contains 90,000 inhabitants.

Charitable endowments.

There are considerable charitable endowments in this district; and though their income cannot be stated with precision, it has been estimated at more than 15,000*l.* per annum at the lowest calculation.

The previous remarks will have shown the probability that official relief in this district cannot be estimated with sufficient accuracy and completeness by the expenditure incurred for the poor from taxation, and as so many auxiliary modes are at work for their assistance which escape altogether the calculations of official inquirers.

Expenditure of the union for West Prussia.

The disbursements of the union for West Prussia (West Preussische Landannenfonds) were estimated at a sum of 9,000*l.* per annum, viz. :—

	£	PRUSSIA.
Relief of grown-up paupers	3,200	
Occasional alms, ditto	600	
For medical assistance	3,200	
Subsidies for sending pauper children to school	1,800	
Occasional payments for children	200	
	<hr/>	
	9,000	
	<hr/>	

It is hardly necessary to explain that the above expenses are applied only to cases beyond the scope of local, communal, or parochial relief.

There exists in Prussia no separate poor fund or poor rate. No separate All the sums, whether applied as the above by a central or union poor rate. board, or by the local, municipal, and rural authorities, are provided for that purpose by the general local rates and taxes.

Town of Dantzig.

The special charges for the poor in the town of Dantzig as they appear in the local budget have varied as follows :—

Expenditure
in the town
of Dantzig.

	£
In 1849	8,640
„ 1861	10,300
„ 1865	14,500
„ 1868	20,300

This rapid increase justly alarmed the municipal representatives, Adoption of and led to the adoption of greater stringency in the distribution of more stringent relief, which has produced the desired result, and has reduced the rules. expenditure for the poor to 15,000*l.* in 1870, and below 14,000*l.* during the year just ended.

As an illustration of the various kinds of expenditure provided for under this head, it may be useful to state a few particulars regarding the nature of each item of disbursements in the town of Dantzig during the years 1867, 1868, and 1869, and taking an average as far as practicable.

In-door Relief.

It having been found advisable to insist in some cases on the In-door relief. refusal of out-door relief where it had been granted formerly, the The work-local workhouse has been enlarged and better adapted for the house. reception of inmates. The average number of these in 1869 was 254, the highest number 314; the average number of days during which they were relieved there was 296.

The expenses of this workhouse, including its management, amounted to 2,315*l.*; whilst the produce of the work of the inmates fetched 348*l.*

In this workhouse only able-bodied paupers find admittance. Almshouse. Another establishment exists out of town for the reception of aged

PRUSSIA. and infirm paupers. In these almshouses there were 333 inmates, maintained at an expense to the town of 1,800*l.* per annum, in addition to 300*l.* derived from a legacy, the interest of which is devoted to this purpose.

In-door medical relief. As there are no free hospitals at Dantzig, the municipality has to pay for the accommodation of all destitute individuals, and in cases of prevailing epidemics this charge swells considerably. In 1868, 2,223 persons were sent in that way to the local hospitals; in 1869 the number of cases decreased to 1,441, at an expense of 2,300*l.*

The conveyance of sick persons to the hospitals, and the funeral expenses of those who died as paupers, amounted to 456*l.*; whilst 180*l.* were disbursed for temporary residents who had no direct claim on the town.

Lunatics. Thirty lunatics have received admittance in the Provincial Asylum at Schwetz, at the expense of the Dantzig poor fund. Of these, eight have been admitted gratuitously, the town having purchased a right to that number of free admissions, and for the others the town contributes annually 340*l.*

Panper children. Provision is also made by the town for the maintenance of pauper and orphan children, and this occasions an annual expense of about 2,000*l.*

Thus in 1869 assistance of this kind was granted in different ways to children, as will appear from the following particulars:—

—	No. of Children.	Expended.
In a local reformatory - - -	10	<i>£</i> 36
Given to nurse in families in town -	254	}
Ditto ditto in the country -	68	755
In the temporary "depôt" for abandoned infants - - -	17	162
One orphan asylum contains - - -	135	—
Another ditto ditto - - -	86	—
Subsidy of the town to the first asylum - - -	—	873
To the second ditto - - -	—	336
Total - - -	570	2,162

Statement of general expenditure.

RECAPITULATION of the above Expenditure.

The workhouse - - - - -	<i>£</i> 2,000
Almshouses - - - - -	1,800
Hospitals and medical expenses - - - - -	2,300
Burial expenses, &c. - - - - -	456
Subvention medical men - - - - -	355
For strangers temporarily here - - - - -	180
Lunatics - - - - -	340
Pauper children and orphans - - - - -	<i>£</i> 2,000
	<hr/> <hr/>
	7,431

Out-door Relief.

PRUSSIA.

Having endeavoured in the above remarks to elucidate the Out-door relief. various items of expense incurred by this town for its poor in the shape of in-door relief, I have now to speak of that numerous class of paupers who are in receipt of out-door relief, an expenditure which has varied here of late years from five to seven thousand pounds.

The local returns for paupers who receive monthly support, Pauperism and varying from 1*s.* to 18*s.* in amount, give the following result on expenditure. the 31st December of each year :—

Year.	No. of Persons receiving Monthly Allowances on 31st December.	Total Expenditure for this Mode of Relief during the entire Year.
1867	2,822	£ 6,126
1868	2,752	6,252
1869	2,394	5,496
1870	2,131	Not stated.

In addition to these regular allowances to paupers, occasional relief in money has been given, the total outlay on this account having amounted from 300*l.* to 600*l.* annually during the same period.

In cases of necessity clothing has also been allowed to paupers, and has occasioned an expense of 440*l.* in 1867, of 512*l.* in 1868, but only 127*l.* 13*s.* in the year 1869.

A diminution of this item of expense, and also of some others, was chiefly due to the co-operation which the municipal authorities have found in the working of a society for the charitable support of the poor of this town, and for the repression of mendicity. This society has only been established since the spring of 1868, and disposes as yet of small means; but its ministrations have contributed to alleviate the burden of the taxpayers of this town.

A separate paper is devoted to the characteristics of the system, followed by the charitable organization here referred to.

British Consulate, Dantzig,
5th January 1872.

EXTRACT from the PENAL CODE of NORTH GERMANY,
of 31st May 1870.

§ 361.

Are subject to imprisonment all those who—

- (1.) After having been placed under police surveillance, resist the restrictions put upon them;

PRUSSIA.

- (2.) After having been banished from federal territory, return without permission;
- (3.) All vagrants;
- (4.) All those who beg or send children out to beg, or do not prevent persons under their care and protection, and who form part of their family, from begging;
- (5.) Those who are in such a way addicted to gambling, drunkenness or idleness, as to necessitate the intervention of the authorities towards procuring relief for themselves, and those whom it is their duty to maintain;
- (7.) Those who, whilst receiving relief from public funds, refuse, from laziness, to do the work suited to their strength, set them by the authorities;
- (8.) All such persons who, after having lost employment, do no procure for themselves other employment within the period fixed by the authorities, nor can show to their satisfaction that, notwithstanding all their endeavours, they have been unable to do so.

§ 362.

Those condemned in conformity with the provisions of § 361 from three to eight can be set to work suitable to their strength, both inside and outside the Penitentiary; in the latter case they must be kept separate from other free workmen.

It may be decided, in the case of persons condemned to imprisonment, that at the end of their term they shall come under the supervision of the police authorities who are empowered to send them to a workhouse for two years or employ them on other work for the common benefit. In the cases mentioned under § 361 (4) this is only permissible if the prisoner has been condemned within the last three years for repeated infractions of it, or if he has begged with menacing gestures or with arms in his hand.

Should a foreigner come under the supervision of the police, instead of being sent to a workhouse, he may be banished from federal territory.

BADEN.**Relief of the Poor in BADEN, by E. M. Baillie.**

MY LORD,

Carlsruhe, March 14, 1872.

In conformity with the instructions contained in your Lordship's Despatch, Circular No. 7, of 20th November 1871, requesting information respecting the Baden poor law, and the societies for organizing charitable relief and repressing mendicity, I have the honour to submit to your Lordship the following statement.

Unions.

In the grand duchy the law imposes upon certain unions or united districts the duty of relieving the impotent poor, that is,

those who have not the means adequate for the support of themselves or their families or are disabled by accident or infirmity from working.

BADEN.

This public relief, however, is only authorised by law when without it the individual would suffer the extremity of want, consequently no assistance is given in cases where private persons are properly under an obligation to provide and have the means of doing so, or when the distress is removed by voluntary benevolence.

The obligation on the part of private persons to give relief is limited in Baden to those standing in the next degree of blood relationship or relationship by marriage, and can only be enforced when sufficient remains to them after the supply of their own immediate wants.

The operations of *voluntary* societies in connexion with the relief of the poor are generally conducted from some central point, and are extended from thence over the whole country.

societies for relief.

The most important society of this kind is the *Carlsruhe Ladies Society*, under the patronage of the grand duchess, branches of which are spread over the whole grand duchy.

The society for the recovery of morally neglected children (Sittlich Verwahrloster Kinder) also deserves to be mentioned.

Besides these national societies whose business is not merely to afford relief, (the moral training and education of the poor being the main object they have in view,) there exist in different districts and parishes a number of societies whose bounty is often limited to a particular place, and their attention devoted to a particular branch of charity, as, for instance, the care of poor sick children.

As regards the extent of these institutions (which are especially valuable in the larger parishes), and the proportion in which they contribute to the general relief of the poor, there are no reliable statistics published.

In connexion with other establishments for the voluntary relief and education of the poor must be mentioned the *foundations*, "Stiftungen," that is, property of various kinds devoted by private persons to charitable objects, the proceeds of which under the control of the State are applied to the particular branch of charity assigned by the donor.

There are a considerable number of such charitable foundations in the grand duchy, the most of them have only a local object and are limited to a single parish.

The revenue from such institutions as well as that of the societies takes precedence in its application of all sums raised by compulsory assessment.

As according to the principle of the poor law, public relief is only afforded when voluntary aid and the means derived from charitable institutions are insufficient, there is necessarily a point where these two kinds of charity meet, and the functionaries employed in the management of the public and voluntary relief of the poor are thus constantly brought into relation with one another.

BADEN.

Co-operation
between public
and private
charity.

One great object of the poor law is to form these necessarily existing relations between public and voluntary charity into a system of harmonious co-operation. The poor law has invested the organ of the public relief, the Poor Law Board (Armenrath) with power to make inquiries respecting the application of the funds of such foundations as are managed in the interest of the poor by other authorities, and has imposed upon it the duty in conjunction with the managers of the foundations, and the societies for voluntary relief, of effecting as much unity of action as possible in the local distribution of relief, and of economising the cost of the public relief of the poor.

Beyond this there are no statutory provisions for regulating the co-operation of the different officers employed in the affairs of the poor, they are left to act together to the best of their ability according to the local circumstances.

As a security, however, for the harmonious co-operation of the legally constituted managers of the foundations, and the officers employed for the public relief of the poor, the Foundations Act (Stiftungs Gesetz) contains a special provision to the effect that the funds for distribution among the local poor derived from those foundations, which, as is usually the case, are under the management of the parish board (Gemeinde Rath) shall be distributed *not* by the latter board, but by the organ of public relief, namely, the Poor Law Board (Armen Rath).

II. The principles on which the public relief of the poor in Baden is founded are as follows :—

Principles of
which public
relief is granted.

- (1.) An individual in case of distress has no *right* to bring his claim upon a union for support before a court of law. If support is refused, the distressed person may complain to the chief administrative authority in the union, but beyond his decision there is no appeal :
- (2.) *Amount of Support.*—Public relief is provided in those cases where an individual is either permanently or temporarily unable to support himself out of his own means or in consequence of infirmity.

Amount of
relief given.

The union has, therefore, only to grant what is absolutely necessary according to the degree of want in the particular case.

It can diminish the burden thrown upon it by finding work for the pauper if capable of working.

The cost of relief comprises chiefly education, instruction of children with the view to enabling them to earn their own livelihood, medical treatment, nursing the sick, and burials.

As regards the question to what extent and for what period assistance is given,

The managing authorities in the union decide on this point just as they do on the validity of a claim for relief in case of complaint.

(3.) Formerly the commune was bound to give relief to those persons only in case of distress who possessed the right of burghership (whether by descent, by being admitted as burghers, or in the case of women, by marriage with a burgher).

Formerly com-
mune only
bound to re-
lieve those
possessing
the right of
burghership.

According to the present poor law of 1870, it is no longer the commune of which the pauper is a burgher (*Bürger Gemeinde*) which is liable as such for relief, but the commune where the pauper is settled as a resident (*Aufenthalts Gemeinde*), and subsidiarily the larger territorial division (*Kreis*). BADEN.
Present law
of settlement.

The fundamental principle of the law is that in the case of Baden subjects the claim for relief shall be attached to the place where the pauper has been resident of his own free will for three years. In the same way the claim is forfeited by a voluntary absence of three years.

Two exceptions have been made to the principle that the burden of relief shall fall on the commune where the pauper has a legal settlement.

It has been provided, out of regard to the strong attachment still remaining to the old rights and customs in the communes, that the commune where anyone has entered on his right of burghership, or has acquired such right by being admitted as burgher, shall be bound to give support so long as the individual makes the commune his habitual place of residence, though he may have his legal settlement with claim for relief elsewhere (*Unterstützungs Wohnsitz*). Exceptions
with respect
to burghers.

A second and more important exception is the provision contained in § 24 of the poor law; according to which servants, factory operatives, artizans, assistants, or apprentices, having no legal settlement with claim for relief where they are employed, must be supported for eight weeks in case of illness at the cost of the local union, no claim for compensation upon another union being admitted.

When no commune is liable for relief, owing to the pauper having no legal settlement, or on the two grounds above mentioned, public relief is granted to distressed Baden subjects by one of the eleven provincial unions (*Kreis Verbände*) into which the grand duchy is divided, that union being liable in the district where the distress occurs; or if the pauper comes from abroad, that union in the district of which the obligation to relieve the pauper last existed.

(4.) The officers of the union where relief is required are responsible, in the first instance, for the due administration of the same. For instance, when a person is taken ill away from his habitual residence the law provides that he shall be taken care of, and medically treated in the place where he fell ill, until he can be removed without danger to his health or that of others, or is in a condition to continue his trade. Unions prima-
rily respon-
sible for relief.

Those unions which thus give support, without being definitively liable, have a claim for compensation on the commune to which the duty legally belongs, or in the absence of such commune on the larger district ("Kreis"). In the case of foreigners, unions have generally a claim for compensation on the public revenue.

(5.) In Baden the poor are not maintained by means of a special poor rate as distinct from other rates. No special
poor rate.

The charge for their relief forms part of the general expenditure

BADEN.

of the commune, and is defrayed in the first instance out of that part of the communal revenue which is not raised by direct taxation.

The same system prevails in the unions (Kreise).

When the communal revenue is inadequate to meet the requirements of the commune, rates may be levied on the rateable capital in land, houses, and industry (Grund- Häuser- und Gewerbstener Kapitalien).

The law, however, does admit exceptionally of rates being levied for the relief of the poor in urgent cases, on property not rateable for the communal purposes, such as the capital value of interests and rents not subject to the land and industrial tax, on the income from appointments in the service of the state, the court, or the commune, on profits from literature or art, &c., &c.

III. The funds raised and expended in behalf of the poor by the voluntary agency of societies are divided into two separate categories, and their administration is entrusted by law to a different set of officers, namely, (1), the funds raised by the communes or the larger districts; and (2), those derived from the proceeds of charitable foundations.

**Communal
funds adminis-
tered by the
Armen Rath.
Their election.**

The former are administered by a board (Armen Rath). This board is composed of the governors of the commune (Gemeinde Rath), the clergyman of each denomination, the doctor in attendance on the poor, or in the want of such the Government physician, where there is one resident, and, finally, a police officer.

The inhabitants who are not burghers but who are rated for the relief of the poor have also the right of electing as many as three members to represent them on this board.

The board is authorised to appoint commissioners for managing and superintending the different branches and establishments connected with the maintenance of the poor, and also special relieving officers for the different districts of the commune.

**The Kreis
Versammlung.**

The administration of the relief of the poor in the larger territorial division ("Kreis") is managed by the assembly (Kreis Versammlung), which meets once every year, and the committee elected by this assembly for the permanent transaction of business.

**Charitable
foundations.**

As regards the administration of the charitable foundations, the revenue of which is devoted to the support of the poor, the following regulations are in force :—

**Their ad-
ministration by
the Gemeinde
Rath or the
Stiftungs Rath.**

By the law of 1870, a distinction is made according to whether the revenue is designed for the poor of *one* commune only, or of several communes of the same official district, or whether it is to be applied to a larger district. When the foundation is designed for the poor of some particular place only, it is administered by the authorities of the commune (Gemeinde Rath). When designed for the poor of several communes of one official district, it is managed by a special board (Stiftungs Rath), to which the authorities of each commune, having an interest in the foundation, appoint a representative.

As the "Stiftungs Rath" is composed of at most nine members, if more than that number of communes have an interest in a foundation their representatives are elected according to a regular order of succession, as fixed by the overseers.

Foundations which are designed for a wider extent than that of ^{National} one official district (Amtsbezirk), and the national foundations (Landes Stiftungen), to which the founder has attached no limit, are administered by Government authorities.

With certain restrictions, and in certain cases, the founder, or those interested in the proceeds of a foundation, may entrust the administration to persons who are not the legally appointed authorities.

If a foundation is established, of which the annual revenue amounts to at least five hundred florins, or if the revenue is to be devoted entirely or in part towards the support of some institution (such as a hospital, poorhouses, orphanage, &c., &c.,) the founder may stipulate that a special board of administration shall be appointed.

The constitution of this special board is, however, still under legal control.

The burghermaster is required to attend, and four or six members chosen from the communal assembly, or the committee of burghers (Burgher Auschuss).

In the case of foundations destined exclusively for persons belonging to a particular religious denomination, and for the management of which a special board is also appointed, the founder may further provide that the members to be elected to attend that board shall belong to the same denomination.

Those persons also who have an interest in a foundation may insist on the board being composed in a similar way of members of a particular denomination, if it can be shown, (1) that the foundation was established after the religious separation of Catholics and Protestants had taken place and before the passing of the Foundations Act; (2) if the proceeds are expended for the exclusive benefit of one particular denomination, both by the will of the founder and also in actual practice; and (3) if the annual revenue amounts to at least one thousand florins, or is connected with some charitable institution to be supported out of that revenue.

Finally, the communal authorities may also demand the appointment of a special board for the better management of foundations which have an annual revenue of at least one thousand florins, or are connected with some charitable institution.

IV. Respecting the amount annually raised for the poor, and actually expended, the statistical returns are very scanty, and respecting the number and circumstances of the poor relieved, there are no satisfactory returns at all. In 1865, according to returns not entirely reliable, five hundred and fifty-four thousand four hundred and twenty-five florins were expended on the poor by the communes, four hundred and twenty-eight thousand five hundred and eighty-four florins by foundations, fifty-seven thousand five hundred and fifty-eight florins by societies; altogether

Existing statistics imperfect.

BADEN.

one million forty thousand five hundred and sixty-seven florins throughout the grand duchy.

Poorhouses.

V. There is in general a poorhouse in each commune where houseless destitute paupers can be provided with a temporary or permanent lodging. Communes which cannot afford a separate poorhouse of their own may come to an agreement with other communes for the reception and relief of their poor; or several communes may combine for the establishment of one common poorhouse.

The local organs may, with the sanction of Government, issue regulations for the maintenance of discipline in such institutions, and may entrust the persons who preside over them with power to inflict certain punishments in case of disobedience (§§ 19, 20, of the poor law).

The communes are, however, not compelled by law to establish poorhouses. In some communes, accordingly, and especially in the poor ones, other systems are adopted for the reception of the houseless poor. Such paupers are either taken permanently into the house of an inhabitant of the place, or else they are lodged with all the burghers of the commune successively for a period corresponding to the ability of each.

Boarding out of paupers.**Pauper hospitals.**

In many communes there are special hospitals for the reception of paupers who have been taken ill. By far the greatest part of such hospitals have their origin in charitable foundations established some centuries back.

Workhouses.

Workhouses do not exist at present in the grand duchy but will shortly have to be introduced in accordance with § 362 of the Imperial Penal Code.

Persons condemned to punishment for vagrancy, begging, prostitution, idleness, and other offences, will be confined in a workhouse according to the discretion of the police authorities for a period not exceeding two years. (§ 361, Imperial Penal Code).

A union has no legal authority to compel anyone to go into a poorhouse or hospital, but the pauper, however reluctant, may often have no other alternative.

A union liable for giving relief is bound by law to observe as much economy as possible in the employment of the public funds compatible with the object in view. A union may establish a hospital or poorhouse (and they are invited by law to do so) in which a large number of paupers may be attended to and supported under the same roof.

Unions may decline to support paupers except in a poorhouse.

If a pauper demands relief and refuses to avail himself of such an institution, the union may decline to give support in any other way, and in case of complaint, the Government managing authorities have to decide whether the pauper must content himself with 'relief given in this form.'

The power possessed by the union to refuse relief of another kind, in cases where it can be most advantageously afforded in hospitals or poorhouses, is practically a very effective means of forcing paupers to avail themselves of such institutions.

VI. The Baden *Police* Penal Code which was in force up to the end of last year, contains a number of enactments against vagrancy and mendicancy. Anyone begging, causing others under his power or authority to beg, or neglecting to restrain them, was liable to imprisonment for a period not exceeding four weeks.

BADEN.

Regulations as to vagrants and beggars under the old law.

Able-bodied individuals who had already undergone punishments within a year for vagrancy or mendicancy, who were not supporting themselves in a legitimate way, and refused to engage in any occupation according to their ability, and were unable to prove that they could not obtain work, were liable to a similar penalty.

The *penal code* also contains various statutes directed against vagrancy and mendicancy.

Vagabonds loitering about beyond the limits of their dwelling place with no regular occupation, and without sufficient means for their support, having been already punished twice by the police in the preceding three years, were liable on a repetition of the offence, and on the demand of the police authorities, to be imprisoned as vagrants with hard labour for a period not exceeding six months.

Beggars with false passports, or false testimonials respecting infirmities or accidents, or with passports or testimonials belonging to others and fraudulently used as their own, or using threatening language, were liable to a similar penalty.

Beggars with arms or other instruments of a suspicious nature, were subject to the penalty of being deprived of their freedom, with compulsory labour for a period not exceeding two years, without having been previously punished by the police authorities.

Finally, vagrants and beggars, besides being deprived of their freedom, were in all cases liable to be placed under the special supervision of the police, and foreigners to be expelled the country.

An Act passed in 1840 for the repression of mendicancy, authorised the administrative authorities to deliver over persons punished for these offences to the police house of correction (*Verwahrungs Anstalt*).

Baden subjects judicially sentenced in a criminal law court for vagrancy or begging, or having been six times punished by the police for these offences, were confined in the house of correction, unless they could show that they could support themselves by some legitimate trade or occupation.

Such persons could obtain their freedom at their own request after two years, or even after one year (but not sooner) if their conduct had been good.

All these penal enactments as well as the police house of correction were done away with at the commencement of 1872, upon the introduction of the Imperial Penal Code.

New regulations under the Imperial Penal Code.

According to this code (§ 361), vagrancy and begging are punished with imprisonment (not exceeding six weeks).

When condemned to imprisonment according to § 362, the individual may at the same time be sentenced to be delivered over to the police authorities after the termination of the punishment.

BADEN.

The police obtain by this means the authority to confine the condemned person for a period not exceeding two years in a workhouse, or to employ him in useful labour.

At the same time this latter penalty is only admissible when an individual has been three times judicially sentenced in a criminal court in the three preceding years for such offences, or if when begging he has used threatening language or arms.

Societies for
the repression
of mendicity
or Armen
Vereine.

Besides these penal enactments for the repression of mendicity, there are in many places voluntary societies (Armen Vereine), the members of which contribute to a fund out of which relief is given, especially to poor travellers, in cases which after investigation are found to be deserving.

These societies, however, do not usually give anything upon mere begging, but refer each case to the managers of the particular fund.

Removal.

VIII. When a Baden subject is in need of public relief in a place which is not liable by law to give such relief, the commune may demand the removal of the pauper, unless his distress arises merely from temporary inability to work; and the police authorities are bound to give effect to the demand, if satisfied with the grounds on which it is made.

The removal cannot of course take place if the pauper is suffering from illness.

In that case the place where the pauper is taken ill is bound (subject to compensation) to support him, and to provide medical aid until he is in a fit state to take his departure.

**Foreign
paupers.**

Baden subjects in distress may only be removed from one commune to another, but never out of the country. Some union (whether commune or "Kreis") is always liable for their support.

Foreigners, on the other hand, may in certain cases be turned out of the country altogether, if from inability to support themselves they become a burden to the inhabitants, or chargeable to the funds for public relief.

The power to turn indigent foreigners out of the country will, however, not be applicable to subjects of the German Empire after January 1st, 1873.

The imperial law will then come into operation, according to which every German will be treated in each state as a native subject, in respect to the support to be granted to him in case of distress, and in respect to the conditions upon which a residence, (*Unterstützungs Wohnsitz*) to which a claim for relief is attached, may be either acquired or lost.

Distressed Bavarian subjects only form an exception, they will be treated as foreigners even after January 1873, as the imperial law is not to be applicable to Bavaria.

The expense of relieving foreigners in distress (with the exception of foreign servants, operatives, &c., &c., who may be taken ill) is borne by the State unless paid by the foreign country.

**Eisenach Con-
vention of 1853.**

The relations with Bavaria and Austria in regard to the treatment of the poor are regulated by the Eisenach Convention of 1853.

According to this convention, each contracting Government provides, that in their own territory distressed foreigners shall be treated on the same principles as their own subjects until they can be removed with safety, and without any compensation or charge for burial being claimable from the state to which the individual belongs.

BADEN.

I have the honour to inclose herewith copy of the Baden poor law.

I have, &c.,

(Signed) E. M. BAILLIE.

The Right Hon. the Earl Granville, K.G.,
&c. &c. &c.

Relief of the Poor in SAXE-COBURG and GOTHA, by C. T. Barnard.

SAXE-COBURG
AND GOTHA.

MY LORD,

Coburg, 15th December 1871.

In obedience to your Lordship's circular despatch of the 23rd of October, I have the honour to transmit answers to the questions relative to the relief of the poor which I have received from this Government, and which form the only information which I have been able to procure.

1. The laws published on the 6th of June 1870 by the German Right to relief. Confederation, and by the Government of the duchies of Saxe Coburg Gotha on the 31st of May 1871, decree that every poor union (Armen Verein) is obliged to provide each indigent German with shelter, necessary nourishment, proper care in illness, and in case of death with a suitable burial.

There are local poor unions (Orts Armen Verbände) and (Land Armen Verbände) country poor unions.

Local poor unions and country poor unions.

In the duchy of Saxe Coburg each parish district forms a poor union. In the duchy of Gotha, each native place. The expenses of these unions are paid by each parish. Each duchy has a country poor union of which the expenses are defrayed by the Government.

A local poor union is bound to provide for every German who becomes indigent in its district. An indigent person, above twenty-four years of age and who has resided two years in a district can claim his maintenance. The expenses of which are chargeable to the poor union to which he belongs.

Every indigent foreigner can claim, as long as he is permitted to remain in the country the same treatment which is granted to a paupers. German.

Independently of the maintenance prescribed by law, the poor receive in towns great assistance from several private poor unions, as well as from charitable donations collected for their benefit.

Relations are obliged to support or assist poor members of their family.

**SAXE-COBURG
AND GOTHA.** 2. The law requires that the support of the poor should be acquired partly by money, also by their being placed in hospitals or poorhouses, where they can be employed, according to their strength, in some work or occupation in or out of doors.

**In-door and
out-door relief.** In-door and out-door relief. The parish is not answerable for any expense incurred by the visits of a clergyman. Other expenses incurred in these cases are to be paid by the parish in the local poor unions, and by the Government in the country poor unions.

In towns and in large parishes there are always charitable foundations who are able and willing to assist as far as lies in their power.

If the means of support on the part of the local poor unions are insufficient, the Government always finds means for providing the necessary assistance.

**Poorhouses in
local unions.** Poorhouses in local unions. 3. The administration of the public poorhouses in the local poor unions is confided to the authority who is entrusted with the affairs of the parish, in conjunction with whom a commission is chosen out of the principal parishioners, and headed by the mayor or constable.

**In country
unions.** In country unions. The administration of the public poorhouses and the general care of the poor in the country poorhouses belongs to the Government, and is carried out by commissioners appointed for the purpose.

No statistics. No statistics. 4. The non-existence of the necessary statistical returns, makes it impossible to furnish an answer to this question.

5. The hospitals, poorhouses, and similar institutions are, at least in the towns, not sufficient to satisfy the always increasing claims made.

**Vagrants and
beggars.** Vagrants and beggars. 6. The police punishes all vagabonds and beggars, and if they have no parish in the duchy to which they can be removed, they are immediately escorted out of the duchy.

Settlement. Settlement. 7 and 8. An indigent person, although not belonging to a local union, is treated in the same way as the parishioner, with the exception of the expenses of maintenance which the parish has a right to claim from the poor union to which the indigent in question belongs.

9. The laws on this question having only been published in 1870 and 1871, sufficient time has not elapsed to enable any decided judgment being pronounced, as to the working and effect of the actual system of relief upon the comfort, character, and condition, of the inhabitants.

I have the honour to be, with the greatest respect,

My Lord,

Your Lordship's most obedient humble Servant,
(Signed) CHARLES T. BARNARD.

The Rt. Hon. Earl Granville, K. G.,
&c., &c., &c.

THE administration of the relief authorities in the town of Coburg is confided to a special Commission, the members of which are the mayor, the treasurer (who is president), two clergymen, and ten citizens (overseers).

Commission
for the relief
of the poor.

There are also several private societies in the town, amongst which is the Women's Union, the object of which is the relief of the poor, and is particularly directed to widows and orphans, for whose benefit not only gifts of money, but also the produce of the sale of needlework, supplied gratuitously by all the members of the society.

The Women's
Union.

This union is managed by six women, who, assisted by a member of the Poor Commission, as secretary, conduct the affairs of the society, and are in direct communication with the Poor Commission.

The Ladies Knitting Union meets weekly. Each member leaves a voluntary gift of money, which is destined for the relief of the poor in the town. The needlework and different articles made at the meetings, such as stockings, shirts, shifts, gowns, &c., &c., &c., are also distributed among the most needy.

The Poor Commission was established in 1820. The Women's Union in 1821. The Ladies Union in 1840.

The Poor Commission meets regularly in each month, sometimes oftener.

The Women's Union have likewise regular meetings.

The receipts of the Poor Commission in 1870-1871 amounted to 13,984 florins = 1,165*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

Receipts of the
Poor Commis-
sion.

The expences to 18,803 florins = 1,150*l.* 5*s.*

The receipts of the Poor Commission are derived from dividends of 33,360 florins in shares = 2,780*l.*, from 1,090 florins = 88*l.* 2*s.* 8*d.* from the funds of the domains, of the town and of the gymnasium, also from gifts from the Ducal Family, and from the inhabitants of the town, independently of sums given on occasions of marriages, baptisms, burials.

The highest donation, yearly, is that of the Duchess, viz., 500 florins = 41*l.* 13*s.*

Few monthly gifts exceed 3*fl.* 30*x.* = 6*s.*

The receipts of the Women's Union in 1870-1871 amounted to 1,891 florins = 157*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* The expences to 1,365 florins = 113*l.* 15*s.* The receipts are derived from money in the funds. Yearly contributions, the highest of which, 175 florins = 15*l.*, is from the Duchess.

Receipts of the
Women's
Union.

The funds raised for the support of the poor are collected by the Poor Commission, who sends beholden persons to collect them, presenting a book, in which each donor writes his name, and states the sum given.

On the part of the State there are no Commissioners for the relief of the poor, except in particular cases, when the prime minister is empowered to relieve destitute persons in the town.

Ministers of religion in the town have no charitable agencies of their own.

There are no other district charitable agencies in the town.

SAXE-COBURG
AND GOTHA.

The members of the Poor Commission receive, as such, no emolument.

The overseer of each district reports to the Commission, when assembled, what petitions he has received and his opinion upon them; further investigation takes place, if necessary.

Relief how administered. Relief is provided according to the different circumstances, either by giving bread, fuel, straw, faggots, soup tickets, house rent, weekly alms, paying for the medicine prescribed for the sick, payment of the expences incurred at the hospital, and by extraordinary grants of money.

Relief is principally afforded to persons incapable of working, especially to the old and infirm, as also in cases of sickness.

Beggars. Beggars are punished as directed by the laws. If they are strangers, they are arrested and escorted to the frontiers.

There is a charitable foundation here, the object of which is to afford assistance to boys (sons of poor parents) willing to learn a trade, under the guidance of good masters. Their education is paid for, and when they leave, they receive, if they have conducted themselves well, 10 florins = 17s., as pocket money for their journey.

General condition of the poor. Little is done as regards the improvement of the condition of the poor. The dwellings are not generally good. The inhabitants are not accustomed to any comfort, and appear unwilling to have any improvements made in their houses.

Where ventilation has been introduced, it has been generally soon purposely rendered ineffective.

It is quite impossible to gain any information here which can be depended upon, regarding the ratio of pauperism to the population. I have, however, been assured that it is not high.

Various institutions. There is a poor house where old and infirm people, to the number of thirty, are provided for.

Another similar house is for the reception of poor widows and their daughters who are generally provided for at the rate of 125 florins yearly = 10*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*

In cases of sickness there are several hospitals.

There is a special institution, which takes care of neglected children, who are placed in the families of well conducted, diligent, and steady people, remunerated by the society.

There is likewise an excellent institution where poor girls as soon as they have been confirmed, which always takes place when they are fourteen years old, are admitted, and where they are taught all that is necessary to enable them later to become cooks, housemaids, needlewomen, &c., &c., &c.

There is a children's garden, where poor children from the age of three to six years, every day, except on Sundays, under proper care and control, amuse themselves in or out of doors.

There are several opportunities here for placing money in saving banks.

There are no temperance societies, they not being considered necessary here. A great quantity of beer is consumed, but generally speaking, one sees very few drunken persons.

Relief of the Poor in the Grand Duchy of HESSE, by E. Cope.

HESSE.

In reading the following report it must be borne in mind that according to the system of local government in the Grand Duchy of Hesse (and indeed in Germany generally), owing to the more perfect organisation of the local governing bodies in the different divisions into which the country is marked off, and their subordination to the Ministry of the Interior, the word parish (*Gemeinde*) must not be considered as exactly the same thing understood by that term in England. The parish in Hesse is the smallest division of the "Kreis" or department, which is again a division of the province. The Grand Duchy is divided into three provinces, viz., Starkenburg with ten departments, Upper Hesse with nine departments, and Rhine Hesse with five departments, in all twenty-four departments. Each parish has its "Bürgermeister" or mayor, and "Gemeinderath" or council, each department its governing body, and each province the same, the whole being under the Ministry of the Interior at Darmstadt. As every person is registered in a parish, the machinery at hand for the working of the Poor Law must render the working of it a far easier task than in England. Again, most parishes are not entirely dependent on rates to meet their public expenditure, many having property, such as woods, which, in a country where wood is used largely as fuel, are often of great value, and the shooting of which is also let on lease for the benefit of the parish, and the towns frequently raise money by an "octroi." I do not mention this as putting forward corporation property and an "octroi" as better than rates only, but simply to explain some of the sources from which the "Gemeindeskasse" or parish treasury is filled.

Explanation of
the divisions of
the country.

QUESTION I.

The nature of the legal provision for the support of the poor, the extent to which that provision is supplemented by charitable organisation, and the legal obligation imposed upon persons to maintain their poor relatives.

ANSWER.

The Laws relating to the Relief of the Poor formerly in force in the Grand Duchy of Hesse, which were the result of a series of separate ordinances issued at different periods, were based on the principle that the relief of the poor inhabitants of a parish was, under the superintendence of the police authorities, the duty of the parish.

The Law of the German Empire concerning settlement for poor relief ("Unterstützungswohnsitz"), which was originally promulgated for the North German Confederation on the 6th of June 1870, and which came into force in the Grand Duchy of Hesse on

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the 1st of July 1871, and regulates organically the whole Poor Law, has made no material change in the above-mentioned principle, for, according to this law also, settlement, i.e. two years' continuous residence in a parish, is the best title on which a person requiring assistance can claim relief in that parish; and the special Hessian Law for setting in force in the Grand Duchy the Law of the Empire, explains the "Ortsarmenverband" or local poor relief union, by which the public relief of the poor is actually performed, to be the same composition as the "Gemeindeverband" or parish union.

Private charit-
able organisa-
tions.

If, on the one hand, the principle is kept to, both in the old and new law, that the relief of the poor, as a public interest, should be carried out by public organisations (such as parish committees and superintending State departments), so, on the other hand, the State has never desired to dispense with private charities for the relief of the poor. Acting on the above principle the Government has indeed opposed the frequently recurring tendency to place the entire poor relief system more or less exclusively in the hands of local poor relief societies, in which no sufficient action was allowed to the authorities of the Grand Ducal Government; but the Government has given full freedom to the competing activity of private societies, whose scope of action limited itself to collect charitable offerings and disburse them for the relief of the poor, so as to counteract the system of begging.

Such charitable societies have frequently worked with the most beneficial results. In the department of Dieburg (a department containing 65 parishes and about 50,000 inhabitants) there have been twenty such societies founded. But these private societies have never spread in a regular network over the whole country, and unfortunately some of the existing societies have lost ground, and others have died out. But the State has endeavoured to turn private charity to good account in another way, and a proclamation of the year 1830 enjoins that "voluntary gifts for "the relief of the poor (whether in money or kind), if the donors "did not direct their being applied to special objects, should go "to the common parish fund or treasury" (Gemeindecasse), out of which the costs for the relief of the poor are chiefly defrayed.

The new Law of the Empire above mentioned has not touched private charity and its organisations; on the contrary, it limits itself to arranging the rights and duties of the unions bound to provide public relief according to the regulations of this law through the whole of the German Empire. On that account the obligations to help a person in want resting on other (private) titles (family, service, contract associations, foundations, &c., &c.) are not touched by the clauses of this law. In consequence every Poor Law Union which has given relief according to the regulations of this law to a person requiring aid is authorised, if a third party be, under some obligation (such as family, &c.), bound to provide relief to the pauper so aided, to claim reimbursement from such third party for the relief given, to the same extent and

under the same conditions that the recipient of relief has a title to such assistance from him or them.

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As to what specially concerns the duties imposed by relationship to compel anyone to provide the necessaries of life for a pauper, according to the common law in the provinces of Starhenburg and Upper Hesse (founded on Roman private law as far as adopted into Germany), the legal obligation to provide alimony falls first on the father or father's next of kin (ascendant), failing these on the mother or mother's next of kin (ascendant), and vice versa, if need of relief is on the other side, i.e. with the elder generation, and sufficient means for providing relief with the younger. The extent of this obligation to provide relief, which obligation can, however, be cancelled by the bad conduct of the person entitled to relief, must, if necessary, be fixed by a judge of a court of law, according to the custom of the country, and in proportion to the position and property of the parties concerned.

The obligation to provide alimony is in its essential conditions regulated after the same manner in the province of Rhine Hesse, according to Arts. 203-210 of the Code Napoleon there in force.

QUESTION II.

The principles upon which such provision is founded, and the mode in which any tax or contribution for that purpose is levied.

ANSWER.

According to the Law of the Empire (§ 1) relative to settlement for poor law relief, every German is in each State to be treated just as a native of that State, as regards—

- (a.) The kind and measure of public relief which is to be given to him in case of need.
- (b.) As regards the acquisition and loss of settlement required for poor law relief.

As regards the kind and measure of the aid to be given, Art. I. Nature of relief of the Hessian Law for setting in force the Law of the Empire given. orders that every German in need of poor law relief has a claim to be housed and to have the actual necessaries of life provided for him, and proper medical aid in case of sickness, and to be decently buried in the event of his death.

This claim for relief is not to be enforced by the paupers on a How claimed. poor relief union by an appeal to a court of justice; he must appeal to the proper Government authorities who have the superintendence of these matters.

Art. I. of the Hessian Law further directs that the relief, so How given, long as the same is claimed, should, if convenient, be given by placing the pauper in a poor-house or hospital, and by giving the pauper work to do suitable to his strength, either inside or outside the poor-house.

The last principle was declared in 1830 by a ministerial ordinance as follows:—

“The paupers who receive aid from the fund for the relief of

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"the poor are to be kept at work, and especially at work for the benefit of the parish, in so far as they have sufficient strength for such work, and that there is work to be done."

And with reference to this, § 361, clause 7, of the German Penal Code of the 31st of May 1870, orders that:—

"If a person receives aid from the public fund for poor relief and from a dislike of work refuses to perform a task, suitable to his strength, set him by the proper authorities, the said person shall be punished with from one day to six weeks' imprisonment."

In cases of extraordinary need of relief, as for example when a pauper has to be entirely supported in consequence of complete inability to work, or in consequence of having been crippled by an accident, or from being of weak intellect, &c., and the said pauper cannot be taken into a poor-house or such like institution, the parish is authorised to make a contract for his being taken care of, but must submit the said contract to the proper Government officials for approval by them. An agreement to give the pauper over to the person offering to take him or her for the lowest sum is inadmissible and forbidden.

The giving of relief to paupers is the business of the local poor relief union (*Ortsarmenverband*).

Every German in need of aid must receive, at all events, temporary relief from the poor relief union of the district in which he may happen to be when he falls into distress. If the pauper thus aided has at the same time his settlement for poor relief in this same district the cost of the relief falls definitively on this union; but if the person receiving aid has his settlement for poor relief in another union, this latter has to refund the costs of relief incurred by the other union, and if the relief be required for a long period, and not merely on account of a temporary inability to work, is bound to take over the pauper from it.

In the case of servants, apprentices, and workmen in fixed employment, the town where they are employed is bound, in the event of their falling ill, to keep them and provide them with the necessary medical treatment, &c., &c. for the space of six weeks, and can only claim the costs of the said relief and transfer the sick pauper to his or her parish after the lapse of six weeks. A woman who is "enceinte" is, however, not to be considered as included in the above term "falling ill," if incapacitated from working from that cause alone, and therefore the parish where her employment might be would not be liable for the six weeks' keep and medical treatment.

As regards servants, apprentices, &c., it may not be out of place here to remark that there are facilities for subscribing to hospitals in the larger towns, and that the masters and employers by paying a small annual subscription to a hospital, and registering the servant or apprentice there, can, in the event of their being taken ill, send them at once to that institution.

In cases where the definitive liability for the relief of a pauper does not fall on any particular local union the duty will devolve

on the "Landarmenverband" or departmental union as representing the larger district, and these departmental unions are authorised to hand over the pauper, who has a legal claim to relief from them, to the local union which has been bound to give the temporary aid, paying a sum to the said local union as compensation.

As regards settlement entitling anyone to poor relief, a person obtains the same in the district of that poor relief union in which he has, after completing his 24th year of age, lived as his ordinary place of residence for two years continuously.

Another title to poor law relief is marriage; in that the wife from the date of her marriage shares the settlement of her husband.

Another title is by birth, as all legitimate children, and children having the rights before the law as legitimate children, share the settlement of the father.

The loss of settlement for poor relief can occur by—

How forfeited.

(a.) Obtaining a settlement elsewhere.

(b.) Two years' continuous absence after the completion of the 24th year of age.

As regards the manner in which funds for the public relief of the poor are obtained, no taxes and rates for the special purpose of meeting these charges alone are raised, but the costs are defrayed out of the general parish fund, "Gemeindekasse," as will be seen later under the answer to No. III.

QUESTION III.

The body or persons by whom the funds for the maintenance and support of the poor are administered, and in what manner they are elected or appointed.

ANSWER.

For the relief of the poor, in so far as there is settlement according to the Law of the Empire, there is:

(a.) The "Ortsarmenverband," local poor relief union, i.e. "Ortsarmenverband," one belonging to a particular town or village, or "Bürgermeisterei," consisting of more than one village or hamlet under the same mayor.

Art. II. of the Hessian Law for setting in force the Law of the Empire orders that each parish is to form a poor relief union, which is to be represented by the local governing body (Ortsvorstand), i.e. the mayor and adjoint and the parish council, and the administration of poor relief, as part of the public affairs of the community, belongs to this body. But in every parish a special committee may be formed from the members of the local governing body, or even by the addition of other inhabitants of the town or village, for the administration of public charity, of which committee, however, the mayor or his deputy must be the chairman.

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“Ortsvorstand” or local governing body. As regards the “Ortsvorstand” or the governing body of each parish and the way it is elected or appointed. The governing body consists of:

- (a.) The mayor (“Bürgermeister”).
- (b.) One or more adjoints (“Beigeordnete”).
- (c.) The parish council (“Gemeinderath”).

“Gemeinderath” or parish council.

The parish council consists of at least nine, and at most thirty members. Places having less than two thousand inhabitants have nine; between two thousand and four thousand, twelve; four thousand to ten thousand, fifteen; ten thousand to twenty thousand, eighteen; and above twenty thousand, thirty members in the council.

The members are elected for nine years, and every three years one third of the members retire and an election takes place. The retiring members are eligible for re-election, but can refuse to serve for the next three years.

The members are elected by the votes of the citizens, those having a right to vote being all male ratepayers of the age of 25 years. Hessian subjects (*Staatsbürger*) and persons eligible for election are all citizens of the place (*Ortsbürger*) having a right to vote as above, and one third of the council must be elected from amongst the highest rated half of the community.

Persons who have ever been convicted and sentenced to punishment for theft, embezzlement, forgery, or perjury, or for severe military crimes, have no votes; also those who have in the twelve months next preceding been punished under the Field and Forest Laws, or as beggars and vagrants, or have been in receipt of regular relief as paupers. Military men in actual service, clergymen, schoolmasters, judges, stipendiary magistrates, and certain employés in the Civil Service are not eligible for election; nor can father and son, or two brothers, be members of the same council at the same time.

The mayor, “Bürgermeister.”

The mayor is nominated by the Government from among the duly elected members of the council (Gemeinderath), of which he still remains a member, and the period for which he is appointed can either be till the next filling up of the council, or for as long as he is a member of the council.

The adjoint, “Beigeordnete.”

The adjoint (or adjoints, for there can be more than one) is nominated in the same manner, i.e. by the Government. He has to act as deputy for the mayor when the latter is absent. The Government decides what number of adjoints there are to be in each parish.

Costs of relief to come from “Gemeindekasse” or general parish fund.

Special funds for the relief of the poor are not, as a general rule, to be collected and kept apart by the parishes, but the costs of the relief of the poor ought to be defrayed from the general fund at the disposal of the parish (Gemeindekasse), and in the calculation of every parish budget a sum, fixed according to ascertained averages, ought to be entered in the column of “payments to be made” under the special heading of “Relief of the Poor.”

On this account even voluntary contributions for the relief of the poor should go into the general parish fund (*Gemeindekasse*) and the proceeds of any alms-fund there may be, and used together with the church funds and collections for the benefit of the poor.

So far as the above-mentioned means are insufficient to meet the costs of relief of the poor, the said costs are to be defrayed from the general parish fund, and are to be entered among disbursements of the second class.

The disbursements and receipts of a parish are divided into three classes, according as they are required for the interests, advantage, or necessities of:—

1. Actual citizens of the town or village (*Ortsbürger*).
2. Inhabitants of the town or village (*Ortseinwohner*).
3. Persons not belonging to the town or village who are only tolerated there.

For meeting the parish disbursements under Class II. the proceeds of the parish property are available in so far as it is not required for disbursements under Class I. If there be no surplus after the disbursements under Class I., or if such surplus be insufficient to meet the expenditure under Class II., the deficit will be laid on all the inhabitants of the parish (*Gemeindeeinwohner*) in proportion to their liability for rating.

If the local union for the relief of the poor be unable to meet its obligations, the union of the department to which it belongs (*Landarmenverband*) must, if so directed by the Government department charged with these affairs, give it sufficient aid.

(b.) The "Landarmenverband," *Departmental Union*.

Art. 4 of the Hessian Law orders that all local poor relief unions belonging to the same department (*Kreis*), a district of about, on an average, 34,000 inhabitants, and of which there are, as stated above, 24 in the Grand Duchy of Hesse, shall form together a departmental union for the relief of the poor. The administration of the affairs of the departmental unions is entrusted to the "Bezirksrath" or council of the department called together for the purpose of working with the officials of the Government in the representation of the common interests of the department, like the "Kreisständen" of other German States.

The departmental council consists of fifteen members, of whom twelve are elected by representatives of the different parishes, and three by the twenty-four highest rated landed proprietors in the department. The members are elected for nine years, and one third retire every three years, as in the parish council above mentioned.

Every inhabitant of the department, who has the right of voting and is eligible for election as member of a council of a parish in the department, and who is thirty years of age, is eligible for election as member of the departmental council.

Employés of the Government are not eligible for election as members in the council of the department in which they are employed.

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The departmental council has to choose a committee of three, from its members, to represent it in all the affairs of the departmental poor relief union, and to lay before it, at its next meeting, reports of what has been done for proper approval.

The costs incurred in the performance of the duties of departmental poor relief unions are borne by the general fund of the department (Kreiskasse), which is under the administration of the prefecture of the department (Kreisamt) and under the control of the departmental council, raised by means of rates levied upon the different parishes of the department in proportion to the amount of their total rateable property, and chiefly used to meet those disbursements which are made in the general interest of the department. Under certain circumstances the State Treasury or the State relief fund give aid, as in the case of extraordinary accidents and misfortunes. There has been formed for this purpose a special State aid fund, managed by an accountant appointed for that duty and under the control of the Ministry of the Interior, which has at its disposal 10,000 to 12,000 florins, say about 800*l.* to 1,000*l.*, and the accounts of which, like those of all other public funds, are placed under the revision of the Audit Office. The endowment of this fund consists in the proceeds of certain investments devoted to this purpose, and of an additional sum annually paid by the Treasury of the Grand Duchy and amounting to 7,000 florins, say about 580*l.* About one fourth of the above-mentioned yearly sum is placed at the disposal of the twenty-four prefectures, which, however, may not spend more than ten florins of it, or about 17 shillings, in one year on one and the same person. The disposal of the remaining three fourths, the Government, i.e. the Ministry of the Interior, has reserved to itself, and the allotting of the money is, in each separate case, in its hands.

State aid given in certain cases.

Foundation funds.

Lastly, as concerns the foundation funds (Stiftungsfonds), the founding and endowment of such funds is subject to the ratification and sanction of the Government, through the proper official department, and this property enjoys, according to Art. 43 of the Constitution, the special protection of the State, so that under no circumstances whatever can it be amalgamated with the financial property.

The direct superintendence over the administration of the public charitable lay foundations and institutions rests with the prefectures in the different departments, and the accounts of these funds have to be revised and proved by the Audit Office.

The prefectures have, unless the constitution of the foundation ordains otherwise, to appoint and superintend the persons keeping the accounts of such local foundations, and they, i.e. the prefectures, have moreover to examine and approve the calculations of expenditure which have to be submitted to them by the local board usually nominated by the statutes and constitutions of the foundations, and have to use the same supervision as in the case of the administration of parish property.

Certain institutions, foundations, and funds intended for the whole country, or for a whole province, if there are no commit-

tees of management formed by the statutes, are managed in like method by the Government of the province..

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The chief supervision and direction of the administration of religious foundations is reserved to the Ministry of the Interior, and under the same :

- (a.) With regard to *Catholic funds &c.*, to the prefectures, but with the proper participation of the Bishops Court and the deans.
- (b.) As regards *Protestant funds, &c.* to the supreme Consistorial Court, and after this to the prefectures.

The Church committees of management (*Kirchenvorstände*), under the superintendence of the above-mentioned prefectures, are charged with the direct local administration of the religious foundations, and the actual working of the administration belongs to the chairman of the Church Board, i.e. the clergyman of the parish, and (at all events hitherto) to the permanent lay members of the same, i.e. the mayor or adjoint.

QUESTION IV.

The annual amount of funds raised and expended, and the number of paupers relieved, distinguishing as far as practicable the able-bodied from the aged and infirm, and from children, and showing also the proportion of paupers numerically to population.

ANSWER.

The number of persons in the Grand Duchy of Hesse, out of the then population of 862,770, who were on account of proved poverty exempted from paying personal taxes, were in the year :—

Number of persons exempted from personal taxes on account of poverty.

Year.	Persons.	Average per 100 households, 10-0.	Average per 100 inhabitants, 2-1.
1864	18,053		
1865	17,797		
1866	17,368		

The number of persons in receipt of alms, i.e. those who notoriously entirely or chiefly live on alms, is found to depend a good deal on local customs, religious influences, the presence of charitable foundations, &c., &c. The number increases with the power and willingness to give alms, and cannot therefore be taken to serve actually as a standard of the prosperity of certain districts

Number of persons known to be recipients of alms.

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or the opposite. Of such known recipients of alms there were in the whole Grand Duchy in the year :—

Years.	Total Persons.	In Towns.	In Country Parishes.	Per 1,000 of the Population.
1861	5,634	2,693	2,941	6·69
1864	4,799	1,988	2,811	5·62
1867	4,888	2,250	2,638	5·94

There are no sufficiently accurate statistics of the actual yearly expenditure, either of the parishes or of the different foundations, to make any precise statement as to the amount spent.

Amount expended in relief in one department.

The sums spent on the relief of the poor by the various parishes are, when the proportion of the population is taken into consideration, very different, the state of trade in the locality and the dearness or cheapness of different years, &c., &c. have the greatest influence in this matter. In many cases it may be calculated that a parish disburses five per cent. of its total expenditure on the relief of the poor. For example, in the department of Bensheim (a department containing about 29,000 inhabitants) the amount spent in the relief of the poor by the parishes was in the year :—

Year.	Number of Paupers relieved.	Florins.
1856	658	11,238
1857	616	9,262
1858	561	8,275

So that, taking an average of the three years, 612 were relieved, or 2·11 per cent. of the population, at a cost of 9,600 florins annually, or somewhat over 800*l.*

For each person aided the cost of relief was about fifteen florins, say about 1*l.* 5*s.*, but it must be remembered that all included above are not notorious paupers living entirely or chiefly on alms.

Numbers in receipt of relief. In the same department of Bensheim the number of persons in receipt of relief was in the years :—

Hesse

Year.	Paupers.	Per 1,000 of Population.
1861	267	9·21
1864	257	8·91
1867	207	7·19

Or on an average 0·844 per cent. of the population.

If this department of Bensheim be taken as a specimen, as in the years 1856–58 the population numbered about 29,000 and the average yearly relief was 9,600 florins, a calculation founded on this basis would make the cost of relief of the poor as about one third of a florin or about sevenpence per head of the population.

QUESTION V.

The extent to which hospitals, houses of industry, or almshouses are provided for all or any classes of the poor, and the principles which are adopted in determining whether poor persons shall be required to come into such establishments or relieved at their own homes.

ANSWER.

Exclusive of six orphanages and refuges for neglected children, *Institution*, and twenty hospitals which are only used as establishments for the relief of the medical treatment of persons suffering from diseases of the body or brain, there are in the Grand Duchy of Hesse thirty-three charitable institutions. One is an “Arbeitshaus,” or prison for mild offences, in Darmstadt, and the rest are poor-houses, i.e. houses for finding support for the poor, and they in the year 1861 housed 938 persons in 456 rooms, viz. 451 men and 487 women, of whom—

536 single;
122 married;
280 widowed;
79 were under 15 years of age;
21 between 15 and 20;
367 between 20 and 60;
471 above 60 years of age.

According to the present population of the Grand Duchy of about 825,000, there is on an average therefore a house of charity for every 25,000 of the population, with 15 dwelling rooms each and 30 inmates, and one person supported by alms in such institutions in about every 900 inhabitants.

The houses of charity in most cases are exclusively for the
19525.

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Hausen: benefit of the persons belonging to the town or parish in which the institution is situated.

Of the above thirty-three institutions, there are twenty-seven belonging to towns and six in the country; there are also besides these often parish poor-houses, in which one or more families or persons belonging to the parish, though not entirely supported as in the above-mentioned institutions, are given free lodgings.

QUESTION VI.

Vagrants and beggars.

The mode in which vagrants and beggars are dealt with.

ANSWER.

Section 361 of the German Penal Code, of the 31st of May 1870, orders that "Those persons shall be punished with from one day to six weeks imprisonment who—

" (a.) Go about as vagrants.

" (b.) Who beg, or induce children to beg, or send them out
" for that purpose, or who neglect to restrain persons
" under their authority and care, and forming part
" of their household, from begging."

And according to § 362 of the same Code—

" The persons who have been condemned to imprisonment on this charge can be set to suitable work, according to their strength and ability, either inside, or, if they can be kept separated from free labourers, outside the prison house."

The persons condemned to imprisonment, or imprisonment and hard labour, on this charge, can, after the term of the same has expired, be handed over to the police, and the police authorities are empowered either to place the persons thus sentenced in an "Arbeitshaus," i.e. prison for light offences, or to employ them in works for the public good. But in the case of those who are simply beggars this can only happen when the person in question has been sentenced to punishment several times within the three preceding years, or when he has used threats when begging or begged with alms in his hands.

Foreign vagrants can be deported.

If a foreigner be, as above, handed over to the police, instead of placing him in an "Arbeitshaus" he can be turned out of the country.

QUESTION VII.

The principle adopted in determining the chargeability of individual paupers, viz., whether they are relieved at the cost of the locality where they become destitute, or whether their places of birth or domicile are liable to repay the charge.

ANSWER.

From what has already been stated in answer to Question No. II, it will be seen that the parish where the pauper has his settlement

for poor relief (Unterstützungswohnsitz) is the one liable for the costs of his support, and the modifications of this rule are also there mentioned.

Hess.

QUESTION VIII.

The manner in which paupers who are foreigners are treated; that is to say, whether they are allowed to remain in the country where they become destitute and are relieved as native paupers, or whether they are sent back to their own countries.

ANSWER.

The injunction in § 60 of the Law of the Empire relative to Foreign settlement for poor relief, according to which a foreigner must receive temporary relief from the poor relief union in the district of which he may happen to be when he may fall into distress, is more positively laid down in the Hessian Law for setting in force the Law of the Empire as follows: viz., that "A foreigner as long as he is allowed to reside in this country is, both as regards the kind and measure of relief to be given him, if he falls into distress, and as regards the acquisition and loss of settlement for poor relief, to be treated just as a German."

Neither of the two injunctions, however, prejudices the right of claiming reimbursement, of the actual costs of relief from the native country (and parish) of the pauper, only that in the case of Austria this claim to compensation for hospital and poor relief costs for those suffering from illness of body or brain, and the costs of burial of deceased paupers, is reciprocally given up by the Eisenach Convention of the 11th of February 1853 and its supplemental clauses.

And likewise by the above injunctions the general axiom of public law is not shaken by which every state under its absolute sovereignty within its own territory has the right to deport foreigners from its own territory to their native country, if their nationality can be ascertained with certainty.

The question how far the carrying out of this right is modified by the law of settlement as regards the subjects of other German states is treated of above in the answer to Question II, and does not belong here, as according to the intention of the said law the subjects of the other states of the German Empire are no longer to be considered as foreigners.

QUESTION IX.

The practical working and effect of the actual system of relief upon the comfort, character, and condition of the inhabitants.

ANSWER.

As far as in my power to judge, I should say that the working General re-
is satisfactory, and as the Law of the Empire has not changed in marks.
any material way the system of poor relief previously existing,

Hesse.

and that law has been introduced so recently as 1st July last, no doubt the Government are satisfied with the working of the poor law. The condition of the inhabitants as affected by it would seem to anyone living in this country to be satisfactory; certainly an ordinary observer would remark fewer beggars and tramps than he would usually see in England. The position, however, of the Grand Duchy of Hesse in a part of Germany where there is a demand for labour, and easy means of communication with other flourishing parts of the empire, no doubt leaves only those incapacitated from working dependent on parish relief.

EDMUND W. COPE.

Darmstadt, May 20th, 1872.

SIR,

Foreign Office, August 16, 1872.

I AM directed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs to transmit to you, to be laid before the Local Government Board, the accompanying Report upon the Mendicity Society of Giessen, which has been received through Her Majesty's Chargé d'Affaires at Darmstadt.

I am, sir,

Your most obedient humble servant,

The Secretary

E. HAMMOND.

To the Local Government Board.

GIESSEN, July 3, 1872.

REPORT from the Grand Ducal Prefecture at Giessen to the Grand Ducal Ministry of the Interior, in answer to No. of March 4th of the current year, on the organization of Societies for Relief of the Poor and repressing Mendicity.

We do not fail, in accordance with the instructions we had the honour of receiving, to lay before you in the enclosure a copy of the statutes of the charitable society of the provincial capital, Giessen, for repressing mendicity, which society has been in existence since February 1850, and respectfully add the following remarks:—

As is to be seen from these statutes, the society does not concern itself with those persons in need of relief who belong to the town of Giessen, to whom the necessary aid is given from another fund and by a relief committee formed for this purpose specially; the society occupies itself rather with strangers in need of relief, who, without the assistance of the society, would, by their begging, become troublesome to the inhabitants of the town; and these come under two classes:

1. Persons in need of relief belonging to the department, but not to the town of Giessen, to whom sufficient aid cannot be given by their parish.

2. Artizans and workmen belonging to other places passing through, who are in want of means to continue their journey.

To the former, after careful inquiries have been made, weekly aid is given so long as is necessary, but, as a rule, at a rate amounting to not more than 12 kreuzers (4d.); the latter receive generally the sum of 6 kreuzers (2d.) to help them on. It is clear that the object of the society, viz., the repression of mendicity, can only be effectually secured if the police go hand-in-hand with it by keeping a sharp watch on and prosecuting and punishing beggars coming from other places.

This strenuous prosecution, which in many cases can only be carried out with a certain degree of harshness, is, by means of the action of the society, deprived of a great part of its harshness. Persons in want are aided in their actual present and pressing need.

The existing organization has now become so well known that artizans, &c. from other places frequently report themselves at once at the police office, in order, after their papers have been examined, to get from them (the police) a token, on the delivery of which to the secretary of the society, the fixed aid allowed is given to them.

If by these means, as may be easily understood, begging is not entirely done away with, it is not to be ignored that the society has borne and still bears very good fruit, for, as far as our experience goes, Giessen, in comparison with other towns, is very little troubled with beggars.

As concerns the means at the disposal of the society for the said object, there is for the year 1872, besides a surplus of 387 florins 30 kreuzers (about 32*l.* 6*s.* 0*d.*), from receipts proceeding from regular subscriptions of members of the society 925 florins and 28 kreuzers (about 77*l.* 3*s.* 0*d.*)

These subscriptions have, in comparison with former years, owing to the death and departure of members, somewhat decreased; and it is therefore necessary from time to time to make efforts to draw into the society residents and new comers.

(Signed) C. RÖDER.

STATUTES of the Mendicity Society founded in the Town of Giessen (capital of the Province of Upper Hesse) for the Abolition of Begging.

§ 1. The object of this society is to abolish begging.

§ 2. The society will endeavour to obtain this desirable end by its members no longer giving any aid to beggars personally; but forming a fund by means of subscriptions, out of which persons in need can receive help.

§ 3. The society comprises such inhabitants of the town of Giessen as have engaged to pay regular subscriptions, and those who shall hereafter be admitted after taking upon themselves a similar engagement. Each member is bound for the current

~~ARTICLE.~~ — calendar year, and remains bound for the following year if he has not announced his intention to retire three months before the expiration of the year.

§ 4. Every member of the society receives a plate with the words "Armen Verein" (Mendicity Society) on it, to be placed on the door of his residence. This plate remains the property of the society, and must eventually be returned to the committee.

§ 5. The business of the society is looked after by a committee of eight persons. This committee passes its resolutions by a simple majority of votes. For the passing of the same it is required that all the members of the committee be invited, and that at least two-thirds be present. Half go out every year, and are replaced by new elections. The first time, lots are drawn as to who are to retire; in the subsequent years those who have been longest in office retire. The mayor of Giessen shall, in addition, be a permanent member of the committee.

§ 6. The chief supervision shall be exercised by a general meeting of the society. The society shall meet for this purpose at least once a year, in October. It is the business of the committee to send out the proper invitation. The resolutions of the society require a majority of votes of the members present. Changes in the statutes of the society require, however, first to be examined and approved by the committee.

§ 7. The committee has the appointment and dismissal of the secretary charged with the accounts, fixes his salary, conditionally upon the approval of the general meeting, and decides what caution-money he is to deposit, &c., and has to superintend his work. The members of the committee take by turn, either monthly or quarterly, the control of the secretary's books, &c. The committee decides about the reception of new members.

§ 8. The committee has to examine applications for help, and decides as to granting it. It must start with the principle that it is above all things the duty of a parish to provide for its own poor, and that the society should interfere only in the case of insufficiency of local funds. It has to work, namely, with the view that either the necessary means of relief shall be provided in the parish budget or made up by special mendicity societies. If the society ascertains that a parish neglects to fulfil its duties, it must take the necessary measures to force it, and, if need be, inform the superior officials of the Government.

§ 9. All persons able to work, as a rule, and all persons who have shown themselves unworthy of aid, as well as children, are excluded from receiving assistance.

§ 10. In order to ascertain whether a case be deserving, the committee has to apply in writing to the mayor of the parish of the applicant, by filling up a form for the purpose. In doubtful cases, however, further inquiries should be made, through trustworthy sources, as, for instance, the police courts. Before particulars about the applicant have been properly obtained, relief can, at the most, only be given once.

§ 11. An exception can be made in favour of travelling artizans.

These may receive help, if their books (*wanderbücher*) are in good order, and bear testimony to their character being good. They cannot, however, receive relief a second time till after the lapse of three months. The delivery of a gift should therefore be marked in the "wanderbuch" with the stamp of the society.

§ 12. The assistance consists of at least 6 kr. (2d.) weekly. The poor man receives the order for the same in the form of a mark or token from the police officer, and the secretary of the society pays the sum which is given on the delivery of the token. A register is kept of the orders.

§ 13. The secretary has to return the tokens to the mayor at the end of every month, in the presence of the member of the committee then charged with the control. These have to give him a receipt signed by both of them as a voucher; and on this occasion the day-book of the secretary is examined, and if there be a sum in hand, steps are taken to obtain the decision of the committee as to its disposal.

§ 14. The secretary charged with the accounts of the society has to submit to such rules with regard to book-keeping and business in general, as are in force for the guidance of accountants of ecclesiastical and charitable foundations in the grand duchy of Hesse.

The secretary is bound to deliver in the accounts for the calendar year at latest three months after the expiration of the same. The committee has to examine these accounts and provisionally to close them. This closing becomes legal if, within eight days after it has been made known that the accounts are open for inspection, no objections have been made against them. In the contrary event, the final decision must stand over till the general meeting. A summary of the accounts must be published annually in the local newspapers.

§ 15. In the annual general meeting of the society the committee has, on the production of the accounts, to render a report on the general working and affairs of the society. At the same time the committee must lay before the meeting a calculation of the receipts and expenditure for the coming year, for its approval.

§ 16. Should the society be dissolved the property belonging to it goes to the poor box of the town of Giessen. The society is to be considered as dissolved as soon as it ceases to have 50 members.

These statutes shall be communicated to the corporation of Giessen for their acceptance of the conditions of this section.

(Signed) KÜCHLER,
President of the Mendicity Society.

Giessen, February 1850.

FRANKFORT-
ON-MAIN.

**Report by Theodor Kuchen, H. B. M. Consul, on
the Charitable Societies in FRANKFORT-ON-
MAIN.**

Before I enter upon the answers to the several questions, I beg leave to make a few general remarks respecting the origin and history of the charitable societies of this town, which may explain some matters connected with the queries.

The oldest of the "Charitable Societies" of this town, "*The General Charity Society*" (Annex No. 1), was founded in 1530, and endowed by the state with legacies, church and convent estates, tenths and ground-rents. The purpose of this society was, first, to relieve the christian poor (without distinction of their religious denomination) by food and money; second, to take care of the treatment of the sick; and third, to provide for the interment of the dead.

This society was followed in 1593 by the foundation of the "*Catholic Charitable Society*" (Annex No. 2), and in 1679 by the "*Poor Workhouse*" and "*Orphan Asylum*." In the 13th and 14th centuries the "*Catherine*" and "*White Ladies*" convents were founded (Annex No. 3), which originally were intended for the reception of daughters of the upper ranks, but which, after the reformation, altered their rules and were thenceforth destined for the reception of destitute spinsters and widows of the Lutheran religion.

Though the state gave assistance by donations of funds at the time of the foundation of these societies, yet they owe their origin mainly to private donations and voluntary contributions, and for this reason they were never taken in the hands of the municipality; even at this present time the distributions of these funds is almost exclusively in the hands of these "Charitable Societies," which derive their income partly from the interest of their capital, partly from voluntary contributions.

An exception is only made in the case of the "General Charitable Society" and of the "Lunatic Asylum," to both which institutions the municipality gives a considerable annual contribution; for other direct relief, only a few hundred florins are spent by the township, which are distributed chiefly to poor strangers, foundlings, &c.

Those of the "Charitable Societies" which are maintained exclusively by voluntary contributions are in no way under the control of the authorities, whereas those of the societies, which are either supported by the township, or were founded by means of the same, are under the control or administration of the authorities.

Such are the following societies:

- "The General Charitable Society."
- "The Hospital of the Holy Ghost."
- "The Orphan Asylum."
- "The administration of the 'Catherine' and 'White Ladies' Convents."
- "The Lunatic Asylum."

By an edict in 1833, these societies were organized as "Public Societies," and their estate declared as property of the christian community of Frankfort.

The superintendence of these societies is vested in the "Chief Magistrate," and is executed by wardens. These wardens are selected by the representatives of the town; they vary in number from three to nine, and receive no pay whatever.

Societies which do not belong exclusively to the christian confessions are obliged always to have members of the three confessions in their administration.

In general, these arrangements have proved highly satisfactory; a result however which is perhaps less owing to the organization of the societies, as to the particular position which Frankfort held until the year 1866. In consequence of the laws of incorporation which existed until a few years ago, and the difficulties which were opposed to the obtaining of the burgership so long as Frankfort was a free city, the immigration of strangers could attain no great dimensions.

The population increased only by slow degrees, and the burgers of Frankfort, always willing to contribute to charitable and benevolent objects, had no difficulties in finding the means for assistance of the proportionately few poor.

But when, in 1866, Frankfort ceased to be a free state, and as each Prussian citizen is now entitled to become also a citizen of Frankfort if he can prove himself possessed of an annual income of fl. 700 (60*l.*), and as besides, on the 1st November 1867, the right of migration was regulated by law of the country instead of by local regulations, a considerable increase of the population, especially in the lower classes, has since taken place, and the number of applicants for charitable aid have risen accordingly, so that the claims for relief exceed already the power of most of the existing societies, and the organization of these bodies will, no doubt, have to undergo a total change.

By the foregoing statements, together with the Statutes, Reports and Formularies (No. 6—34), which I annex, most of the questions are answered. The remaining ones I answer herewith.

"Is the migration of labour promoted?"

The migration is not promoted. The emigrants however enjoy the benefit of the "Society for Protection of the Emigrants" (Annex No. 4.)

"Are loans granted?" No.

"Are any general measures taken to improve the condition of the poor, and if so, of what character?" By improving the dwellings of the poor.

The dwellings of the poor, to a certain extent, are taken care of by the "Building Company for Public Benefit" (Annex No 5).

"By promoting sanitary improvements?"

For this purpose, before 1866, a society of physicians was formed, but of which nothing has been heard for some time. There are no other measures taken to promote the interest of the work-people.

**FRANKFORT-
ON-MAIN.**

"What is the ratio of pauperism to population?"

The ratio of pauperism to population is not to be ascertained, as the "Charitable Societies" are not centralized, and as the societies do not give reports on this point.

In conclusion, I submit a copy of an edition on the system of the poor laws (Berlin 1870) which may prove useful, and which I beg you to accept for general information.

Frankfort-on-Main, *March 1872.*

HAMBURG.

Report on the Relief of the Poor in HAMBURG, by George Annesley.

Relief system
purely voluntary.

THE peculiar position which has been occupied by the small republic of Hamburg from the earliest times, has had the natural effect of preventing that sharp line of demarcation from being drawn between public and private charity which exists in larger and less isolated communities. There is, therefore, strictly speaking, no legal provision for the support of the poor, nor any system bearing a resemblance to the general operations of the English poor law. The relief being voluntary, there is neither a legal obligation on the part of the wealthy to contribute to any special fund, nor a legal claim on the part of the poor to assistance when destitute.

Although the local peculiarities of a self-contained town like Hamburg have thus rendered poor laws unnecessary, the relief of the poor has always occupied a large share of public attention. Previous to the Reformation the administration of charity was committed almost exclusively to the Romish clergy; but among the numerous beneficial changes introduced at that period was the system of parochial relief, which appears to have attained the end in view in a very admirable way.

From the directions published in 1529 for the guidance of the overseers of the poor, of whom there were twelve in each of the five parishes of the city, the following brief extract may be interesting:

The overseers were enjoined "to visit the houses in their respective districts once every month, in order to make themselves acquainted with the circumstances of the poor; to provide employment for those who were able to work; to lend money without interest to those who were honest and could with a little assistance maintain an independent position; and, lastly, to grant permanent relief to the disabled and sick."

So long as they were carried out in their original spirit these regulations appear to have worked well. The number of indigent poor was reduced to a minimum, while squalid poverty was rendered impossible. By degrees, however, the spirit of self-denial needed for the successful working of this system vanished, and, towards the end of last century, the poor, left to battle almost

Directions for
the guidance of
overseers pub-
lished in 1529.

Deterioration
of the early
system.

alone with all the evils of poverty, had become both demoralized and dangerous. To remedy these evils several influential citizens remodelled the regulations then in force, and succeeded in devising a system for the relief of the poor, which after serving as a model to several countries and towns in Europe, has been continued in a somewhat modified form down to the present day.

This organization, which bears the name of the Allgemeinen Armen Anstalt or General Board for the Relief of the Poor, appears to be very thorough and practical. The town is divided into twelve districts, each of which is subdivided into six sections, each section being placed under the care of two overseers. In addition to its twenty-four overseers each district has a physician, two or more apothecaries, a nurse to attend the sick, and one or two messengers according to the necessities of the various localities. The physicians receive 18*l.* annually; the apothecaries make a deduction of 25 per cent. from the regular charge for the medicines supplied, and the nurses and messengers are paid according to the extent to which their time is occupied. Each district is also under the superintendence of an inspector, and the operations of the whole body are directed by a board of twenty-seven persons, composed of the inspectors or superintendents of the twelve districts, one of the managers of the general hospital, the lunatic and orphan asylums, and the workhouse, with representatives from the financial department of the town council, and is presided over by a burgomaster and a senator.

The overseers of the poor are elected for a term of three years by the inhabitants of the districts in which they live, while the superintendents are chosen for ten years by the General Board, and retire as their period of office expires. With the exceptions already mentioned the whole machinery is voluntary.

The practical working of the system may be thus briefly described. A committee, consisting of eight district superintendents, meet together weekly to revise the lists furnished by the overseers and persons receiving or applying for permanent or temporary relief and to decide upon the general nature and extent of the aid to be continued or granted. The aid thus given consists of clothing, fuel, soup tickets, medical attendance, schooling, and, in a few cases, admission to temporary lodgings rent-free, in addition to small sums of money varying from 7*d.* to 2*s.* per week for individuals and 3*s.* 6*d.* for families.

It will be readily admitted that much of the success of an organization, however perfect, will depend upon the character of the persons by whom it is administered and the amount of personal attention they devote to it. In this respect it is said that there is a great diversity in the results of the system under consideration. Where the overseers are too much engaged in business to attend personally to the poor under their care, the most important part of the work is left in the hands of the messengers, who form the medium of communication between

Establishment
of the General
Board for the
relief of the
poor.
Its administra-
tion.

HAMBURG.

No statistics available.

Approximate numbers receiving out-door and in-door relief.

Hospital, and lunatic and orphan asylums.

the overseers and the poor. Hence it not unfrequently happens that undeserving cases obtain assistance to the exclusion of those who are too much ashamed to make their poverty known.

No statistics are available as to the actual number of persons relieved at their own houses, nor is it possible to distinguish the able-bodied paupers from the aged and infirm. The importance of such statistics has, however, been long recognized, and measures are being taken which will remedy this defect in future years. The number of children, mostly orphans, under the entire charge of the board in 1870 was 859, for whose maintenance the sum of 3,369*l.* was paid, being about 3*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.* for each child. The scholars for whom education was provided free of charge to their parents in the same year were 3,996 in number, at a total cost of 8,000*l.* or about 2*l.* per annum for each scholar.

The recipients of out-door relief constitute by far the largest number of the persons receiving public charity, and are estimated to vary between 4,000 and 5,000 according to the season of the year and the state of trade. The inmates of the workhouse, who may be regarded as having sunk to a condition of permanent pauperism, number 1,300. The average number of persons relieved may therefore be stated at about 6,500 or 2*½* per cent. of the population.

From the statistics published by the General Board it appears that the number of families and separate individuals receiving relief in the form of money and soup tickets only at their own homes at the end of the year 1870 was 2,708. The amount expended in that way was about 12,000*l.*, the average sum of money received by each family during the year having been 4*l.* 10*s.*

Owing to the anomalous character of the Board as a private and voluntary institution receiving considerable grants from the public treasury, it is somewhat difficult to arrive at an accurate account of the total sums raised and expended for public charity. A large amount of the fund required by the General Board used to be raised by voluntary donations and legacies. When the public found, however, that the deficiency of private contributions was supplied by public grants, these contributions gradually decreased, and have latterly ceased altogether.

There are three public institutions in connexion with the General Board for the Relief of the Poor, namely, the general hospital and the lunatic and orphan asylums already referred to, all of which have been endowed to a certain extent by bequests of property, but as these endowments are not sufficient to meet the claims made upon them, it is necessary to supplement them by contributions from the public exchequer, as is done with regard to the funds of the general board.

The following table presents a view of the revenues enjoyed by these various institutions and the extent of the public aid granted to them in the year 1870, together with the amounts expended, stated in English money.

**RECEIPTS and EXPENDITURE of Public Charitable Institutions
in Hamburg in the year 1870.**

HAMBURG.

Receipts and
expenditure
of public chari-
table institu-
tions for 1870

Receipts.

Institution.	Private Revenue.	Public Grant.	Total.
General Poor Board - -	£ 2,815	£ 29,781	£ 32,596
General Hospital - -	12,551	20,172	32,723
Lunatic Asylum - -	5,117	7,265	12,382
Orphan Asylum - -	5,300	8,285	8,585
Total - - -	25,788	60,458	86,236

Expenditure.

Institution.	Food, Clothing, &c.	Medical Attendance, &c.	Children, Board of Education.	Cost of Manage- ment.	Total.
General Poor Board -	£ 16,594	£ 2,849	£ 11,378	£ 1,775	£ 32,596
General Hospital -	19,895	5,563	—	7,765	32,723
Lunatic Asylum -	7,220	1,962	—	8,200	12,382
Orphan Asylum -	8,595	—	940	4,000	8,585
Total - - -	46,804	10,874	12,318	16,740	86,236

The inhabitants are under no legal obligation to support their poor relations, but it will be seen by the following general rules laid down by the board of relief that it is only in exceptional cases that aid is given to such persons.

“As a rule the following persons shall be excluded from support, viz.:—

“1. Those that have parents or children who are able to maintain them.

“2. Those whose ability to work is such that their probable earnings will suffice for the support of themselves and families.

“3. Able-bodied parents who have not more than three children to support.

“4. Able-bodied individuals who have only one or two children to care for.

“5. Drunkards, beggars, and vagrants, who on the contrary should be handed over to the police.

“6. People living in concubinage. Only the most urgent need can justify aid to such persons.”

The isolated condition of Hamburg when surrounded, as was formerly the case, by a wall, and accessible only by gates which were closed at sunset, made it possible to carry out very stringent regulations to prevent the influx of persons who were liable to become destitute. Orders were given to the gatekeepers to prevent “beggars, cripples, Jew pedlars, and other suspicious persons” from entering the town, and the inhabitants were forbidden to

Persons ex-
cluded from
relief.

HAMBURG.

receive strange beggars into their houses, or to give them money in the streets, under penalties of ten or five thalers respectively. Although this harsh and unfeeling law has long been obsolete, its spirit was revived in a police regulation issued in the year 1869, forbidding almsgiving in the streets. Owing to these precautions Hamburg has always been much freer from vagrants and beggars than most towns of the same character. When found, beggars and vagrants are punished with one or two days imprisonment for the first offence, from one to four weeks imprisonment in subsequent cases, which is increased to imprisonment for two years with or without hard labour where it is evident that the individual is determined to pursue a vagrant life.

**Chargeability
and settlement.**

The principle adopted with reference to the chargeability of individual paupers is now uniform throughout Germany, having been regulated by the laws of November 1st 1867, and June 1st 1870. In conformity with the provisions of these enactments, every German in distress must be temporarily relieved by the authorities of the state or town in which he finds himself. Should a person in distress not be entitled to a settlement in the state or town where he is living at the time, which settlement is acquired either by a continuous residence for two years after the completion of his 24th year, by marriage, or by descent, the local authorities have a claim upon the locality to which he legally belongs for the reimbursement of the expenses that have been incurred for his relief.

These laws have not been long enough in force to permit any reliable opinion being formed as to their practical working. The probable effect so far as Hamburg is concerned will be the accumulation of a great deal of poverty which the laws hitherto in operation have effectually prevented.

**Foreign
paupers.**

Foreigners who become destitute are relieved as native paupers, but the number of such persons is exceedingly small, the legislation of Germany in general, and of Hamburg in particular, having had the effect of checking the settlement of people possessing no visible means of support.

**General work-
ing of the
system.**

The practical working and effect of the system which has been described upon the welfare of the inhabitants in general may be said to be good, especially where the persons charged with carrying out the details devote a sufficient amount of attention and discrimination to the investigation of the various cases brought to their knowledge. The voluntary character of the organization is commendable, and the extent to which the feelings of those in destitute circumstances are spared, and their self-respect preserved, deprives the system of public relief in Hamburg from exposure to those charges of inhumanity or favouritism which are so frequently brought against the administration of the poor law in England. It may also be remarked that there is not in Germany that readiness to regard workhouse relief as the inevitable accompaniment of hard times or advanced life as is too often the case at home. Frugality, temperance, and foresight are general characteristics of the German people; and savings banks, sick and burial clubs, and other forms of provision for old age and distress are taken advantage of by a large section of the population,

even where their means are so low as to render saving a matter of great difficulty.

A description of the measures adopted in Hamburg for the relief of the poor can scarcely be regarded as complete without a notice, however brief, of the large number of institutions here, the object of which is to afford aid to those who are only partially in distress.

These institutions may be divided into two classes, viz. :—

1. Those that are of long standing and to some extent under public control; and
 2. Those that are of recent origin and are under the immediate management of their founders.

The first class comprises seven hospitals or asylums, affording accommodation for 540 women and 230 men. Admission is obtained to them in most cases by the deposit of a sum of money varying from 18*l.* to 185*l.*, in consideration of which the inmates, who are mostly in advanced life, receive annual allowances towards the expenses of living in addition to lodging, firing, &c., free of charge. The total income of these seven institutions is estimated at 21,000*l.*, which is derived from landed and other property valued at 670,000*l.*

The public control exercised over these asylums, some of which have been in existence for four or five centuries, does not at present extend beyond requiring from the managers a complete annual statement of their accounts in proof that the original capital is devoted to the purpose intended by the founders, and that it is not reduced or squandered through neglect or misappropriation.

The second class being of more recent origin are almost exclusively under the superintendence of their benevolent founders, who grant admission upon various grounds to deserving individuals. On this account very little information is published respecting them. The principal of them are the Schroeder Almshouses, founded by Baron Schroeder, at a cost of about 64,000*l.*, for the accommodation of above a hundred persons; the Læisz Institution, founded by a merchant of that name, for the reception of nearly the same number; and the Vorwerck Almshouse, which is much smaller than either of the others and of a more private character.

In addition to these there are a great many charitable associations for affording temporary or permanent relief to necessitous persons, but, unfortunately, no materials are available for any report upon their number or the extent of their operations. Enough, however, has been mentioned to show that the public provision made for the support of the poor is amply supplemented by charitable organization, and it is only necessary to add that the condition of the poorer classes in Hamburg, though confessedly open to much improvement, contrasts favourably with that of the same section of the population in many other towns and countries in Europe.

Hamburg, November 22, 1871.

(Signed) GEORGE ANNESLEY,
H. B. M. Consul.

SAXONY.

Relief of the Poor in SAXONY.

IN answer to the questions of Her Britannic Majesty's Government concerning the relief of the poor and the laws referring to this subject, which were communicated to the undersigned, under date of the 4th instant, the undersigned has the honour to enclose No. 18 of the year 1840 and No. 10 of the year 1868 of the Collection of Saxon Laws and Orders in Council, containing the General Poor Law of October 22nd, 1840, along with the Order in Council for the carrying out of this law, as well as the additional Act of May 5th, 1868, destined to amend its provisions. As for the rest, the undersigned has the following observations to make:

1. "The nature of the legal provision for the support of the poor" may be seen from sects. 1-8 inclusive, sects. 9-22 inclusive, and sects. 23-60 inclusive of the Poor Law, in conjunction with the provisions of the above-mentioned additional Act.

2. Concerning "the extent to which that provision is supplemented by charitable organisation," see sect. 13 A 1, 3, and 6, B 3 and 4, and sects. 15, 16, and 17 of the Poor Law, together with the paragraphs of the additional Act which have reference to this subject.

3. "The legal obligation imposed upon persons to maintain their poor relatives" is defined by sect. 5 of the Poor Law, and by sects. 1,630, 1,634, 1,637, 1,802, and 1837-1854 of the Civil Code for the kingdom of Saxony of January 2nd, 1863, of which a copy is subjoined here.

4. "The principles upon which such legal provision for the support of the poor is founded," appear from the paragraphs of the Poor Law mentioned under No. 1.

5. Concerning "the mode in which taxes or contributions are levied for that purpose," sects. 19, 20, and 21 of the Poor Law, and the corresponding paragraphs of the additional Act will give the wished for information.

6. With regard to the point mentioned under No. 3, see sects. 71-91 of the Poor Law.

7. It is impossible to answer the questions specified under No. 4, as, up to the present time, no statistical accounts have been kept in Saxony concerning municipal administration and the relief of the poor.

8. Concerning "the extent to which hospitals, houses of industry or almshouses are provided for all or any classes of the poor," sect. 54 of the Poor Law and Art. 6 of the Order in Council for the carrying out of this law are to be consulted. Besides, it may be mentioned that for a greater number of years more and more free associations have been founded between the different parishes with a view of taking common measures for the relief of the poor and the prevention of vagrancy and mendicity. These associations, which spread over larger districts, generally coinciding with the districts of jurisdiction, and which have been invested with the rights of corporations by the Government,

exercise a beneficial action in the public interest, especially as far as the suppression of vagrancy and mendicity is concerned.

9. With regard to the principles spoken of under No. 5, it is to be observed that the parishes which are bound to relieve the poor are left at liberty to determine the mode in which this ought to be done.

10. An answer to the question mentioned under No. 6 will be found in sect. 361, Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, and 8, and sect. 362 of the Penal Code for the German Empire, of which a copy is subjoined here.

11. The questions comprised under No. 7 are answered by sects. 1, 2, 5, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 36, 55, 56, 59, 61, and 62 of the Federal Law of June 6th, 1870, on the chargeability of paupers, of which a copy is enclosed.

12. With respect to the points mentioned under No. 8, sect. 60 of the above-mentioned Federal Law and sect. 10 of the Saxon Order in Council for the carrying out of the same, dated June 6th of the present year, of which a copy is subjoined here, will give the desired information.

13. Concerning the questions touched upon under No. 9, the undersigned thinks it will be sufficient to state that the former Saxon Law of Settlement of the year 1834 and the provisions of the Poor Law of 1840 have proved highly beneficial, and there is every reason to hope that this will be the case also in future, as long as the latter are still in force.

On the contrary, it yet remains to be seen whether the new Federal Law on the chargeability of paupers, which has superseded the Saxon Law of Settlement, will work as satisfactorily as the latter. Some doubts are entertained with regard to this; however, the said law has not been in force long enough to enable us to judge with safety of its practical working.

Dresden, November 17th, 1871.

Minister of the Interior.

(Signed) v. NOSTITZ-WALLWITZ.

My LORD,

Dresden, June 5th, 1872.

WITH reference to your Lordship's Circular Despatch of the 23rd October of the past year, I have the honour to enclose a Report, based on the information furnished to me by the Department of the Interior, relative to the poor laws of Saxony. I regret that the extreme difficulty of collating and translating the laws on this subject has prevented my sending the Report in at an earlier period.

I would beg to supplement the information furnished by the following remarks on the system for the relief of the poor in the Dresden district.

For this purpose Dresden is divided into 36 districts, under a superintending Poor Law Board, at the head of which is the chief burgomaster.

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The establishments placed immediately under the control of the board are the following:

I.—PFLEGEANSTALT (for boys and girls from 6 to 14).

In order to provide for the children of such parents as are in prison and from other circumstances cannot support them, as well as for those children who cannot be immediately taken into the orphan asylum, the Poor Law Board organised in 1837 homes supported out of the town poor fund. The judicial authorities and the police are empowered to propose children for reception. Their stay in these houses is not generally over a year.

Should it be found necessary to keep them longer, they are generally sent to an orphan home or to families in the country.

II.—WAISEN RINDER COLONIEN (orphan colonies in the country).

In 1831 the Poor Law Board arranged for the care of children in families. Colonies of this kind exist in the parishes of Maxen, Rötzenschenbroda, and Dohna. They visit the district school and are under the immediate care of the teacher. The clergyman of the parish is inspector and treasurer, looks after their education, pays for their board, and reports to the Poor Law officers.

III.—STADTWAISENHAUS (Orphan Home).

This is a very old establishment, founded by the Town Council in 1687, and intended for the reception of poor orphans born in wedlock of the Evangelic Lutheran religion.

During the siege of Dresden in the seven years war, the house and chapel were completely destroyed, and had to be rebuilt at a cost of \$20,000, which swallowed up the whole of the available funds.

By gifts and donations the Waisenhaus Church was rebuilt and consecrated in 1780, and in 1847 the Orphan Home in Antonstadt was connected with it. Children born here are alone taken in. Should they possess any means of their own or have any relations or friends who can take this charge upon themselves, a small payment is exacted. At present there are about 62 boys and 47 girls. After confirmation the boys are apprenticed to various trades, and the girls put out to service.

IV.—FINDELHAUS (Foundling Hospital).

In the beginning of the 17th century the Town Council established this hospital, originally intended for the reception of exposed infants and pauper orphans. As at present organised, it provides for native orphan children up to the age of 6 or 7, when they are generally provided for elsewhere.

Besides these establishments there are several others, such as the "Städtisches Versorghaus," founded in 1718, and destined for

the reception of 300 native poor who have work set them in the house. SAXONY.

The "Asylum" for those suffering from epileptic diseases and harmless idiots.

Finally, the "Town Workhouse" for vagrants and idle persons sent there by the police.

I have, &c.,

(Signed) J. HUME BURNLEY.

The Earl Granville,
&c., &c.

**EXTRACT from the POOR LAW for the KINGDOM of SAXONY, of
October 22nd, 1840.**

FIRST SECTION.

General Principals.

§ 1. It is the duty of the persons entrusted with the administration of the local affairs of a place to provide also for the public relief of the poor under the control of the Government authorities. The State interferes only in cases of necessity. Local administration.

§ 2. The aims to be attained by the organization of public relief Objects of
public poor
relief. are—

- (1) The prevention of destitution as far as such is possible :
- (2) The relief to be given to those who have become destitute :
- (3) The surveillance to be exercised over those persons who are receiving public relief.

§ 3. The surveillance to be exercised over beggars and their punishment belong to the police.

SECOND SECTION.

On the Claim to receive Public Relief and on the Obligation of granting it.

§ 4. Only those paupers have a claim to receive public relief Right to relief. who cannot obtain the necessary means of subsistence from any other persons or corporations (bound to maintain them either by law or in consequence of a particular obligation contracted by them), nor are voluntarily maintained by other persons, nor are themselves in a position to gain the necessary means of subsistence.

§ 5. Relations in the ascending and descending line, as well as Obligations of
relations. married people, are bound to maintain and support each other according to the existing regulations of the Civil Law.

Collateral relations and persons allied to each other by marriage cannot be forced to support one another in case of need, except on special legal grounds; nevertheless the Poor Law Board may invite such persons in an appropriate manner to fulfil the moral duties incumbent upon them in this respect.

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6. The obligation of corporations to maintain and support their members, or other persons belonging to them, is based upon the special police regulations and statutes referring to those corporations.

§ 7. Public relief must likewise be granted to such paupers as may not at once be able to obtain the necessary aid from the persons or corporations bound to maintain them; but the Poor Law Board is entitled to demand restitution of the sums thus spent in relieving them from the aforesaid persons or corporations.

THIRD SECTION.

On the Provision made for the Relief of the Poor.

General fund.

§ 9. In every Poor Law District there is a general fund, into which all the contributions flow which are levied for the purpose of granting public relief, and from which all the sums are taken which are required for that purpose.

Institutions and endowments.

§ 10. All the institutions and endowments which may exist in a place have to be administered according to the regulations laid down by their founders, with this proviso, however, that all the destitute persons of the place are to be benefited by these institutions or endowments, unless the said regulations expressly set down the contrary. The managers of such institutions or endowments are also bound to give information to the Poor Law Board about all the persons received into them or supported by them.

Information to be supplied to the Poor Law Boards by charitable societies.

§ 11. The Poor Law Board may ask the presidents or directors of private benevolent societies or institutions whether certain persons receiving or claiming public relief are supported by them, and in what measure this is the case. This information cannot be refused by the said presidents or directors.

§ 12. The supplies of the Poor Law Fund are partly ordinary, partly extraordinary ones. Only in the case of the former proving insufficient can extra poor rates be levied.

Ordinary supplies of the Poor Law Fund. Casual receipts.

§ 13. The ordinary supplies of the Poor Law Fund consist—

(A.) In casual receipts.

With these are to be classed :

(1.) The collections made at weddings, christenings, burials and at the holy communion :

(2.) The taxes levied in consequence of a change occurring in the ownership of real estate situated within the Poor Law District in question, whether that change be brought about by purchase, barter, donation, inheritance or otherwise :

(3.) Legacies and donations in favour of the Poor Law Fund :

(4.) The contributions which, according to the statutes or local wages of a place, have to be paid from inheritances, legacies, "mortis causa donationes" &c. by the persons receiving them, or their successors :

- (5.) The money collected in boxes put up at post-offices, inns, &c. :
- (6.) The taxes to be paid for public performances, exhibitions, concerts, balls, and other amusements of all kind requiring the permission of the police :
- (7.) All the fines which, according to law, are to be applied to the relief of the poor, or for benevolent purposes ; furthermore, the produce of food confiscated by the police.

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(B.) In regular receipts.

Regular re-
ceipts.

With these are to be classed :

- (1.) The collections made at churches for the benefit of the poor, and the contributions from the revenues of a church which may be granted by the churchwardens with the consent of the superior authorities in places where the church property is considerable enough to permit of such a thing :
- (2.) The contributions from the revenues of a community which may be granted to the Poor Law Fund with the consent of the legal representatives of the said community :
- (3.) The produce of the collections made at the houses of all the inhabitants of a Poor Law District who are in a position to contribute to the Poor Law Fund ; likewise the voluntary contributions given at regular intervals, as well as the produce of the poor rates in places where, having been customary before this, they have been declared permanent by the Poor Law Board :
- (4.) The contributions of permanent private clubs :

(C.) In receipts connected with the administration of the Poor Law Fund itself Other receipts

With these have to be classed :

- (1.) The interest and revenues from capital or real estate belonging to the Poor Law Fund :
- (2.) The produce of the work done by paupers who may be employed on account of the Poor Law Fund, in so far as this produce is not handed over to the paupers themselves :
- (3.) The sums to be restituted to the Poor Law Fund by persons who, after having received public relief, may subsequently have come into better circumstances :
- (4.) The sums restituted to the Poor Law Fund from the property left by persons who have died in public work-houses or hospitals, or who have otherwise been supported from the Poor Law Fund.

§ 15. In parishes extending over several Poor Law Districts the produce of the collections and contributions mentioned under A 1. and B 1. has to be divided among the different Poor Law Districts according to the number of inhabitants of each district.

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All invited to subscribe.

Assessment in case of refusal.

Extraordinary supplies.

§ 16. All the inhabitants of a Poor Law District not dependant upon other people for their maintenance, and not requiring public relief themselves, as well as all the owners of ground property situated within the said district (even when they reside somewhere else) have to be invited to contribute their share to the subscriptions and collections made for the benefit of the Poor Law Fund. The soldiers and noncommissioned officers garrisoned in the place are alone excepted from this rule. The amount to be given or to be subscribed is left to the discretion of each individual; however, if a person should refuse all contribution to he said fund, or if he should offer a sum altogether out of proportion to his means and the requirements of the Poor Law Fund, the amount of the contribution to be given by him may be fixed by the authorities.

§ 17. Voluntary contributions which are meant to be given at regular intervals have always to be subscribed for a certain period of time, not less than a year, and unless the person giving them expressly cancels or reduces his subscription within the last three months before the expiration of the said period of time (supposing him to have a right to do so, which is not always the case), or less he gives up his residence within the Poor Law District in question, his subscription is considered to be tacitly prolonged for an equal length of time, as it was originally intended for.

§ 19. The extraordinary supplies of the Poor Law Fund consist:

- (1.) In poor rates to be paid by the persons mentioned in § 16 :
- (2.) In loans contracted on account of the Poor Law Fund.

§ 22. The revenues of the Poor Law Fund are not to be applied to other purposes, nor are they to be mixed with other revenues of the community.

FOURTH SECTION.

On the Principals to be observed in granting Public Relief, and on the Provision to be made for that Purpose.

Principles on which relief is granted.

§ 23. Not every poor person has a claim to public relief simply on account of his being poor, but only such paupers as are unable to procure for themselves the necessaries of life by their own exertions, and only in as far as such may be the case.

§ 24. In granting public relief to destitute persons, the Poor Law Board ought to observe the following principles:

- (1.) Paupers capable of working ought to be forced to gain their livelihood by their own exertions, and should be supplied with means necessary for this purpose :
- (2.) In the case of public relief becoming unavoidable, no more should be given to them than what is absolutely necessary for their maintenance.

§ 25. To prevent destitution as much as possible, early assistance is to be rendered to persons who have got into trouble for a time through domestic or personal misfortunes.

§ 26. On the contrary, those persons who, by their extravagance or idleness, expose themselves to the danger of becoming destitute and requiring public relief, may be placed under the surveillance of the police, if the said danger is imminent and easy to be foreseen.

To this class belong especially those persons who are given to drunkenness.

The Poor Law Board may in such cases propose to the civil authorities that trustees should be appointed to take care of the property which the person given to extravagance, drunkenness or idleness, may still possess, in order to secure the Poor Law District against the complete impoverishment of the said person and against the necessity of maintaining him.

§ 27. Paupers given to idleness have to be forced to work by the police with whom the Poor Law Board has, in such a case, to communicate.

It is the duty of the latter to take care that remunerative employment should be procured to such paupers as are both willing and able to work, but happen to be without employment.

§ 28. The Poor Law Boards should do their utmost to prevent such paupers as long as possible from requiring public relief.

§ 29. The means to be used and the measures to be taken for this purpose vary according to the requirements of each case which may vary at the different localities.

§ 30. In order to render the attainment of this end more easy for smaller and poorer places or districts which do not possess the requisite means for carrying out such measures, whilst they require them most of all for the diminution of poverty and the suppression of mendicity, troublesome not only to themselves, but particularly also to the neighbouring localities, several Poor Law Districts, comprising especially towns with the villages situated around them, may enter into a union and appoint joint committees for the carrying out of such measures. The Government authorities have to favour the formation of such unions. The latter have to keep up constant communication with the Poor Law Boards of the various districts, and the means necessary for the carrying out of the above-mentioned measures have to be provided from the Poor Law Funds of the different districts of which the union is composed. Further details are to be settled by mutual agreement among the different Poor Law Boards.

§ 31. If paupers refuse to do the work offered to them, although they would be able to do it, it being perfectly suitable to their strength and otherwise appropriate for them, they are to be considered unworthy of receiving public relief, and as they have to be suspected of idleness and mendicity, they are at once to be placed under the surveillance of the police.

§ 32. All public relief is to be considered merely as temporary. Public relief to be considered as merely temporary. The Poor Law Boards have, therefore, to keep a constant eye upon the pecuniary position of the paupers relieved by them, and entirely to stop, or at least to diminish, the relief granted to them,

Trustees may be appointed for drunken or extravagant persons.

SAXONY. in case the circumstances which rendered public assistance necessary should undergo a total or partial change for the better.

Form of relief. § 33. The relief to be granted to paupers may consist :

- (1.) In alms to be given to them :
- (2.) In the nursing of diseased paupers :
- (3.) In the education of the children of paupers :
- (4.) In the procuring of shelter to paupers :
- (5.) In complete sustenance to be given to them.

§ 34. Alms are to be given only for the purpose of providing a pauper with what is absolutely necessary for him. Before granting this kind of relief the Poor Law Board should, therefore, closely examine the peculiar circumstances in which a pauper and his family are placed, in order to determine how far they require public assistance, and what kind of relief would be particularly appropriate for them.

§ 35. Alms may be given in money or in kind. The latter mode of giving relief is to be preferred in all places where a pecuniary advantage would accrue from it to the Poor Law Fund.

In Summer, the amount of relief to be given to the poor has to be reduced, unless the peculiar circumstances in which a pauper is placed should render such a measure perfectly impossible.

Sick paupers. § 36. When a pauper is taken ill and cannot procure himself the care and superintendence which he requires, he is to be placed in a public hospital, or otherwise to be taken care of at the expense of the Poor Law Fund; at all events, he is to be provided with medical assistance and with the medicine which it is found necessary to prescribe for him. Should he die, the unavoidable expenses of the funeral have likewise to be borne by the Poor Law Fund.

No taxes are, however, to be levied on behalf of the Parish Church Fund for such a funeral.

Lunatics. § 37. Insane paupers should be removed to public lunatic asylums as soon as the evil begins to show itself. At all events this ought to be done when the insanity of a pauper degenerates into raving madness so that he becomes dangerous to himself as well as to others. An exception can only be made in case of the physician declaring that the care and superintendance which may be procured at his place of residence will be sufficient.

§ 38. Diseased paupers may be received into the hospitals and asylums of Sonnenstein, Colditz and Hubertusburg in accordance with the Law of May 26th, 1834.

Sick paupers not to be removed. § 39. Destitute persons who are taken ill while travelling, so that they cannot continue their journey without danger to their health, are not to be removed from the place where they arrive in such a condition, or where they fall ill. They have, on the contrary, to be provided with shelter and proper care as well as medical assistance, which ought to be granted to them at the expense of the Poor Law Fund, except when they possess themselves sufficient means to procure these things, or when there are other persons or corporations in the place who are bound by law to take

care of them. At any rate, the Poor Law Board has a right to demand restitution of the sums thus spent on behalf of such persons from those of their relations who are bound to maintain them.

§ 40. The question whether such a diseased pauper should be allowed to continue his journey has solely to be decided by the physician or surgeon.

§ 41. The wish of the patient is to be considered only as far as the physician deems advisable to do so. Even if the patient should assert that he was perfectly well and capable of travelling, the medical examination and decision mentioned in § 40 still remains necessary, if there should be the least doubt as to the correctness of the patient's statement.

§ 42. Exceptionally the patient may be removed if the local Rules as to removal. authorities receive authentic information that he would be received at some other place, and that he would be better taken care of there, so that according to the opinion of the physician the patient's own interest would require his removal.

§ 43. If the physician declares that the patient can only be removed by conveyance, and the removal is to take place, a conveyance is to be furnished by the Poor Law Board of the district, and the patient is to be sent to the place of his final destination. The said Poor Law Board has in such a case no right of claiming the co-operation of the places situated on the road, but if the place to which the person is to be sent off is so distant that the conveyance in which he is removed cannot return on the same day, the Poor Law Board who has furnished it has a right to demand from the Government to be indemnified for each succeeding day.

§ 44. If the persons who are bound to take care of a diseased pauper can or will not pay the expenses of his removal by carriage (supposing the latter to be permissible), they have to continue taking proper care of him until he is able to continue his journey on foot.

§ 45. The fact of the Poor Law Board of a district having neglected to do what § 39 of this law prescribes does not free the Poor Law Board of another district, through which a diseased pauper may pass afterwards, from the obligations contained in that paragraph, but the expenses arising from the fulfilment of this duty have to be refunded by the Poor Law Board or the persons who would have been obliged to take care of the invalid before.

§ 46. If foreign paupers are sent across the frontier in a state of sickness, admittance is to be refused to them. If they are, however, so ill that they cannot safely be removed, or if foreigners travelling on foot are found on the road in such a condition that it would be impossible to send them back to their country, or if the authorities of the same should refuse to take them back, or if any other improper proceedings should occur on the part of foreign authorities or communities, the Poor Law Board of the place where the foreigner has arrived has, it is true, to take care of the patient, but a report should at once be made for the purpose of

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causing such improper proceedings to be remedied and punished by the government of the foreign country in question, and of having the expenses incurred by the said Poor Law Board in taking care of the patient fully refunded.

Servants.

§ 47. If servants who are not chargeable to the Poor Law Board of the place where they are serving are taken ill while engaged in service, the question has first to be decided whether their masters are not obliged to keep them at their own houses and to provide the requisite attendance and medical advice for them, or to have them taken care of somewhere else and pay the expenses resulting therefrom. This question is to be decided in accordance with the law of January 10th, 1835. But if, according to the clauses of this law, the master is not obliged to do this, or if his obligation to do it ceases, and the servant is not in a position to pay himself or herself the expenses caused by his or her illness, § 39 and following of the present law have to be observed, with this proviso, however, that those members of the servant's family, who may be legally bound to maintain him or her, can be forced to refund the said expenses. The same rule is to be applied in the case of a servant falling ill, who happens to be out of service and is not chargeable to the place where he or she is staying at that time, as well as in the case of a person being taken ill who may be temporarily staying at a place on account of business, or for some other reason, without being chargeable to the same.

Persons afflicted with contagious diseases.

§ 48. If travelling artizans or other working men going from place to place to seek work are infected with the itch or other contagious diseases, the police authorities of the place where they are found have immediately to send them back to their country, if they are foreigners, or to the place to which they are chargeable, if they are natives, except when their bodily condition is such that they cannot safely be removed.

Orphans.

§ 49. Poor orphans who have no relations that would be legally bound to bring them up and whom nobody else is willing to take charge of, have either to be received into the existing orphan asylums, or else to be placed with respectable families at the expense of the Poor Law fund.

The Poor Law Board should endeavour to induce people who have no children, or are otherwise qualified for it, to take charge of orphans and to educate them, without demanding a remuneration for it.

School fees.

§ 50. In places where there are no separate charity schools, the children of paupers who, according to their age, would require to be sent to school, have to be received into the ordinary primary schools of the place, and the Poor Law Board has to pay for each child half of the sum which is charged for the instruction given at those schools.

In populous places where it is difficult to find useful occupation and superintendence for children after the lesson hours, or where the parents leaving home for their daily work are often obliged to leave those of their children who are not yet fit to be sent to

school entirely without control, the Poor Law Board has to take care that establishments should be erected in which such children could be kept under control, and in which they would find appropriate employment and instruction in various trades. The occupation to be given to them would have to be adapted to their age and strength, and should be so selected as not to impede but rather to further their bodily and intellectual development.

§ 51. Teachers appointed at popular schools should inculcate Duties of upon their pupils from early youth that it is every man's duty teachers. to endeavour to gain his livelihood by working honestly with his own hands; that it is a disgraceful thing to become a burden to one's fellow citizens and to allow oneself to be maintained by them; that a pauper loses the most important rights of a citizen, and that impoverishment is, therefore, a misfortune which every one must try to avoid by all means and to the best of his power.

§ 52. If a pauper has no dwelling, the Poor Law Board has to provide him with shelter, either by renting lodgings for him or by placing him in a public workhouse or, in cases of extreme necessity, by ordering what is called the "reihezug" to take place, viz, all the owners of houses situated in a place have then, each in his turn, the duty of giving the pauper shelter for a time. Homeless paupers; the "reihezug" or boarding-out system.

§ 53. Such persons as happen to be without shelter, but are perfectly able to maintain themselves, have to reimburse the Poor Law Fund for the rent paid by the Poor Law Board for the lodgings procured for them, and in the case of their having been received into a public workhouse, they have either to pay a rent for the rooms occupied by them, the amount of which will be fixed by the authorities, or to indemnify the Poor Law Fund by working out the amount of the sum which they thus owe.

§ 54. The Poor Law Board of the different districts ought to do their utmost to cause public workhouses to be erected wherever the want of such an establishment is felt, and should take care that the workhouses thus erected should answer the requirements of the case as much as possible. Workhouses should be erected.

§ 55. If there is no public workhouse in a place, or if the work-house of a place is entirely filled with inmates, and it is found impossible to rent lodgings for the paupers left without shelter, the "reihezug" has to take place, in regard to which the following rules have, however, to be observed : Regulations as to the "reihezug."

- (1.) The authorities have to fix the space of time (according to the requirements of each locality) in which a person making use of the "reihezug" should be allowed to stay at each house where he is received. This space of time should, however, never be less than a week.
- (2.) The authorities may exempt isolated houses belonging to a Poor Law District from the obligation imposed by the institution of the "reihezug," if considerations of security should necessitate such a measure, or if a residence in those houses should render it impossible, or at least

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Complete
maintenance
only to be
granted to
certain classes.

Regulation of
workhouses
and asylums.

Care of orphans
after leaving
the asylum.

difficult, for the persons making use of the "reihezug" to gain their own livelihood. The owners of such houses have, however, to pay a contribution to the Poor Law Fund (the amount of which will be fixed by the authorities) as often as it would have been their turn to grant shelter to a person making use of the "reihezug."

§ 56. Except in cases of sickness (see § 39), support and shelter are to be granted to *foreign* paupers, only as far as they absolutely require it, for their sustenance and for the purpose of reaching the next place upon the road leading to their destination, without being obliged to beg.

§ 57. Complete maintenance, comprising board, lodging and other necessaries of life, should be granted only to such persons who, from debility brought about by old age, from idiocy or other infirmities, are neither able to maintain themselves, nor can with safety to themselves and others be left without superintendance, but are not in a position to claim the assistance of relations or other persons legally bound to support them. Such persons may be either received into hospitals, workhouses or almshouses, or in default of such establishments may be placed with private families who will undertake to take care of them.

§ 58. In public hospitals and larger workhouses or asylums proper care is to be taken that for those of their inmates who cannot leave the house on account of their infirmities, a private service should be held on every sunday or holiday. Furthermore, to preserve order in the house, rules are to be set up which all the inmates of the establishment have to submit to. The latter should be made to practice the virtues of cleanliness and order, to live together peacefully and amicably, and to assist each other in case of need; at the same time they should be made to occupy themselves in a manner suitable to their strength. In the first instance, they should be asked to make themselves useful in the house and to nurse each other in cases of sickness. If circumstances permit it, they may also be made to do some other light work, such as spinning, picking of feathers &c.; and the profits arising from this work are then to be used for the benefit of the establishment. In orphan asylums appropriate occupation should be given to the children after lesson hours, with a due regard to the difference of sex. Thus they may be required to make themselves useful in the house, or else they may be occupied in the open air, particularly in the fields or gardens belonging to the establishment. Indoor work, to which they would have to sit down, should be given to them only in winter. In general, such establishments should be organized as much as possible on the pattern of a well regulated family household.

59. After the education of an orphan has been completed either at the local orphan asylum or at the house of correction for children at Bräunsdorf, or with private persons who may have taken charge of him at the expense of the Poor Law Fund, the Poor Law Board of the district to which he has hitherto been chargeable has to enable him to make his way in the world by

paying the unavoidable expenses for dress, tools and other things which he may require in order to be placed as an apprentice with some tradesman.

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§ 60. No apprentice fees are to be charged for orphans and boys who have been brought up at public expense on account of the poverty of their parents.

SIXTH SECTION.

On the Poor Law Boards and their Duties.

§ 72. As the relief of the poor belongs to the matters left to the self-government of the different communities, the organization of the Poor Law Boards and the regulations concerning the discharge of their duties need not be quite uniform, but should rather be adapted to the wants and requirements of each locality. Entire liberty is, therefore, left to the municipal authorities to make such arrangements as they may think best calculated to render the course of proceeding to be adopted by the Poor Law Boards for the discharge of their duties as simple and safe as possible.

The following principles and fundamental rules are, however, to be observed everywhere.

§ 73. In towns, the whole system of relief is under the direction of the town-councils and the committees nominated by them; in the country these functions are exercised by the head-boroughs, and if several villages are united into one Poor Law District, by the head-borough of one of them, either entrusted with this office from the beginning, when the Poor Law Districts were first formed and sanctioned by the Government, or nominated afterwards by the superior Government authorities, a hearing having previously been granted about the matter to the local authorities of the different places and to the commissioners charged with the formation of the Poor Law Districts.

§ 74. The bodies who have been entrusted with the direction of the affairs connected with the relief of the poor, have direct authoritative and executive power throughout the whole extent of the Poor Law District which they represent, and over all its inhabitants without any distinction, in all matters belonging to their sphere of action.

§ 75. The inhabitants of a Poor Law District have to co-operate in the management of the affairs connected with the relief of the poor.

§ 76. For that purpose the authorities mentioned in § 73 have to constitute a Poor Law Board, which ought to be composed of those inhabitants of the district who are conspicuous by their intelligence, their experience, the active interest which they show in all matters of public utility, and the confidence which they enjoy amongst their fellow citizens.

The owners of large estates situated in the district, or if these should be absent, the stewards or farmers of the same; furthermore, the clergyman and schoolmaster of the district, or, if there should

SAXONY. — be several, one or the other of them, the presidents of private benevolent societies and institutions, and one or several physicians (if there are any in the district), should always be invited to join the Poor Law Board.

The head boroughs and local judges, as well as the trustees and administrators of the charitable foundations, almshouses, hospitals, and orphan asylums situated in the districts are always ex officio members of these Poor Law Boards.

§ 77. In those communities which are large enough to constitute a separate Poor Law District, the management of the affairs connected with the relief of the poor rests with the municipal council, which has, however, likewise to invite the persons mentioned in the foregoing paragraph to join the Poor Law Board, unless these persons be themselves members of the municipal council.

Their duties. § 78. The affairs to be discussed by the Poor Law Board and to be carried out by the same under the direction of the authorities mentioned in § 73 comprise :

- (1.) All the arrangements to be made and the business to be carried on concerning the relief of the poor in general, especially the management of the cash business and the keeping of the books, as well as the administration of foundations and institutions serving for particular charitable purposes (as far as they are not under separate administration by will of the founder), as well as the appointment of the requisite number of employés.
- (2.) The levying of the funds required for the relief of the poor.
- (3.) The measures to be taken for the purpose of providing work for persons wanting employment and for the prevention of destitution.
- (4.) The relief of the poor, in a more restricted sense of the word, that is to say, the enquiry into the degree of destitution of the different paupers to be supported or to be taken care of, the fixing of the amount of support or care to be granted to each pauper according to his wants, and the administering of such support or care.

Members to be unpaid ; but assistants may be employed. § 79. As a rule, the duties connected with the relief of the poor, in the more restricted sense of the word, have to be discharged by members of the Poor Law Boards themselves. However, in larger districts, where the enquiries to be made on the spot would necessitate a more frequent personal interference on the part of those members, the assistance of other persons fitted for this task may be procured, and the Poor Law Districts may be divided into a number of wards for this purpose.

§ 80. The members of the Poor Law Board have to attend to their duties without remuneration. It is, however, permissible to appoint paid employés, as an exception, in places where the amount and difficulty of the work connected with the relief of the poor render it unavoidable, as well as for such kinds of services which cannot with propriety be demanded from the members of the Poor Law Board themselves.

§ 81. For the management of the cash-business a treasurer is to be appointed to whom an appropriate remuneration may be granted for his services by the Poor Law Board if he should demand it. The person to be chosen for this office should be possessed of some real estate or else be able to give security for the proper discharge of his duties. He may also be entrusted with the collection of the contributions to the Poor Law Fund, unless the place or the Poor Law District be so large as to necessitate the appointment of special collectors, whose functions may, however, be assigned also to members of the Poor Law Board or other well disposed inhabitants of the place.

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Treasurer to
be appointed.

§ 82. A certain amount of cash, to be fixed by the Poor Law Board according to the requirements of the case, should be left in the hands of the treasurer; all the rest of the Poor Law Fund, together with the documents which may belong to it, should be carefully deposited at the offices of the Poor Law Board.

§ 83. The accounts of the Poor Law Board are to be closed by the book-keeper every year on the last day of December, and then, within a period to be fixed according to the size of the place, to be handed over to the competent authorities (see § 14 of the Additional Act of May 5th, 1868), to be examined and ratified, after which they have to be exhibited at some public place, so that everybody may be able to inspect them: in larger places, however, whose financial position will permit the expense, an extract of these accounts has to be published in print.

§ 84. The local authorities of a place may, in conjunction with the Poor Law Board, draw up special regulations concerning the relief of the poor wherever this should be deemed necessary, and if a wish should be expressed to that effect, the sanction of the superior Government authorities may be obtained for such local regulations.

Special regu-
lations may be
drawn up by
the local autho-
rities.

The principal subjects to which these regulations may refer, are—

- (1.) The resources of the Poor Law Fund and the manner in which they ought to be made use of:
- (2.) The administration of the existing charitable foundations and institutions:
- (3.) The measures to be taken for the purpose of procuring work for paupers:
- (4.) The relief to be given to paupers according to the different degree in which they may require it (if it should be deemed advisable, a maximum may be fixed for the weekly relief to be granted):
- (5.) The arrangements to be made concerning the instruction given at the charity schools:
- (6.) The regulation of the question of what persons the Poor Law Board should be composed, what should be the course of business to be adopted by the same, and to what extent other inhabitants of the Poor Law District should be invited to co-operate in the relief of the poor:

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- (7.) The relief of the poor in the more restricted sense of the word, especially the control to be exercised over the paupers receiving public relief:
- (8.) The management of the cash business and the manner in which the persons entrusted with it should render account of the same.

Accounts to be inspected by the Amtshauptleute.

§ 85. The county magistrates (Amtshauptleute) have to inspect the accounts of the Poor Law Boards, as a rule, at least every three years, and besides that, as often as any notable irregularities are brought under their notice. In order to do this, they have to betake themselves to the spot, and have closely to examine whether, concerning the receipts of the Poor Law Fund, § 14 and following, and concerning the relief of the poor itself, § 28 and following, of the Poor Law, as well as the corresponding clauses of the local statutes, have been duly observed. They have, furthermore, to inspect the almshouses, hospitals, orphan asylums, and other charitable institutions of the place. They have to consult with the local authorities and the Poor Law Boards for the purpose of remedying any irregularities, deficiencies, or shortcomings which may be discovered, and of introducing any improvements which may be found indispensable. To this end they should arrange a conference with the said authorities and Poor Law Boards, if possible, at once, and should assist them with their advice, without losing sight of the peculiar wants and requirements of each locality; but if they should meet with a decided unwillingness on the part of those bodies to correct even the most evident deficiencies, they will have to report to the superior Government authorities for further steps to be taken.

Joint committees.

§ 86. The county magistrates (Amtshauptleute) are also entrusted with the formation of the joint committees mentioned in § 30.

The joint committees consist—

- (1.) Of one member of the municipal council of each town belonging to the union:
- (2.) Of the presidents of the bodies entrusted with the general direction of the affairs connected with the relief of the poor in the other poor law districts belonging to the union:
- (3.) Of the delegates chosen from their midst by the different Poor Law Boards.

Their meetings and procedure.

§ 87. At certain intervals, or whenever urgent business requires it, the members of these joint committees assemble at a place to be fixed under the presidency of the county magistrate, or of a commissioner nominated by him, to debate and decide upon matters of common interest to the union.

§ 88. For the discharge of current business a sub-committee under the direction of a chairman is to be appointed at the same place where the house of industry erected for the union is situated. The joint committee elects the members of this sub-

committee by relative majority of votes ; in the case of equality SAXONY.
of votes lots are to be cast.

§ 89. The unions and joint committees mentioned in § 30 are formed for the present only by way of trial for a certain number of years, so that they may be dissolved again or else prolonged for another period of time.

§ 90. For the attainment of the ends for which these unions are formed, special funds are to be created at those places which have served as nuclei for the formation of such unions or which are acknowledged as their centres. These funds, which are formed by the contributions of the various places and poor law districts belonging to each union, are to be kept apart from the local poor law funds, and to be administered by a member of the above-mentioned sub-committee of the union. The said contributions may either be fixed both as regards the amount of the sums to be paid and the intervals at which they ought to be paid, or they may only be given from time to time, as the necessity arises, and to the amount required. They may, furthermore, either be taken from the local poor law funds, or else be collected from the inhabitants of the various poor law districts belonging to the union. All these questions are to be decided according to the terms of the agreement come to by the different poor law districts in establishing the union.

§ 91. The union poor law fund cannot be drawn upon for the purpose of granting relief to paupers in the shape of alms, of procuring for them medical assistance and care when they are ill, or of paying the expenses for the instruction to be given to their children, &c. ; but it is solely to be made use of for the purpose of procuring employment of any kind to paupers capable of working, in order to prevent as much as possible their becoming entirely destitute, and to suppress mendicity in the district.

**EXTRACT from the ORDER in COUNCIL of October 22nd, 1840,
concerning the carrying out of the POOR LAW for the KING-
DOM of SAXONY of the same date.**

Observation referring to § 54 of the Poor Law.

The Poor Law Boards will have to consider whether the rate of population of their district and the greater or lesser number of cases in which, according to past experience, the necessity is likely to arise of giving shelter to destitute persons, will make it seem advisable to devote a whole building exclusively to this purpose, and what dimensions such a building ought to have, or whether it would be sufficient to rent the necessary rooms in other public or private buildings already existing and to have them fitted up for their new purpose. It is, indeed, not intended to charge the poor law districts with unnecessary expense by forcing them to erect establishments which are not really required, but on the other hand the poor law districts and their authorities will

Extract from
the Order in
Council of 1840
as to the pro-
vision of work-
house accom-
modation.

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easily perceive that it is their own interest to make all requisite provision in that respect, this being the only way to escape the necessity of having now and then to submit to the burdensome measure of the "reihezug," the hardships and disadvantages of which, for every one concerned in it, are well known.

**EXTRACT from the LAW of May 5th, 1868, concerning the abolition
and amendment of some clauses of the GENERAL POOR
LAW of October 22nd, 1840.**

Extract from the law of 1868. WE, JOHN, by the Grace of God, King of Saxony, have decreed, with the assent of our faithful Diet, as follows:

§ 1. Whenever a change occurs in the ownership of real property; unless this should take place in consequence of compulsory sale, a tax is to be levied, the whole amount of which is to be handed over to the Poor Law Board of the district in which the said real property is situated.

The amount of this tax is fixed equally for every kind of real property without any distinction, whether it be situated in purely rural districts or in mixed districts (containing towns and villages), at $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. of the purchase money, or when there has been no sale, at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the value to be calculated according to the amount of direct taxes paid for the ground property in question. Unless something else has been fixed by contract or local usages, the above-mentioned tax is to be paid by the new owner of the said real property.

The various poor law districts have, however, the right of introducing changes into the clauses of the present law by local legislation as regards the payment of this tax, its amount, or the scale according to which it is levied.

§ 2. The collection of voluntary contributions is left for the future entirely to the judgment of the legal representatives of the district in question.

§ 3. If the expenses caused by the relief to be given to the poor are not entirely covered by the ordinary funds at disposal for this purpose, extra poor rates may be levied.

§ 4. All persons residing in a poor law district and liable to direct taxation by the State can also be forced to pay the poor rates which it may be found necessary to impose upon them according to §§ 3 and 9.

§ 8. Unless the different communities composing a poor law district have agreed otherwise (which they are allowed to do, with this proviso, however, that such agreements require the sanction of the State authorities), the sum required to defray the annual expenses of the Poor Law Board, as far as it is not covered by the ordinary funds at disposal, has to be procured in the following manner: One half of it has to be paid by the landed proprietors of the district according to the amount to which their property is taxed, and the other half by all the inhabitants of the district subject to direct taxation by the State.

§ 9. It is left to every community belonging to a poor law district to levy the amount of poor rates, which will thus fall to its share (according to the amount to which the landed property of the place is taxed, and according to the number of its inhabitants), either in the same manner in which local taxes are generally raised, or upon the particular principles to be laid down for the levying of poor rates.

§ 10. Landed proprietors who do not reside within the poor law district in which part of their landed property is situated can be made to pay poor rates only according to the amount of property situated within that district.

§ 11. If a person liable to pay poor rates has promised continued voluntary contributions to the poor law fund without stipulating any advantage for himself in return for it, he may deduct the sums thus promised from the amount of poor rates to be paid by him.

§ 12. Poor Law Boards are allowed to raise loans for their districts under the same restrictions under which it is lawful for communities to do so.

§ 13. The members of the Poor Law Board have to attend to their duties without receiving any payment for it. The Poor Law Board may, however, grant a remuneration for the management of the cash business, and for the keeping of the books as well as for certain particular services, such as for example, the superintendence of the building of a house. Besides it is permissible to appoint paid employés as an exception in places where the amount of work connected with the relief of the poor or the difficulty of the same render it unavoidable, as well as for such kinds of services which cannot, with propriety, be demanded from the members of the Poor Law Board themselves.

§ 14. Unless the local statutes of a place should determine otherwise, the accounts of the Poor Law Board have to be closed by the book-keepers every year on the last day of December, and then, within a period to be fixed according to the size of the place, to be handed over to the competent authorities, viz. in towns which have adopted the general municipal statute to the town council, and in other places to the body entrusted with the supreme direction of the affairs connected with the relief of the poor. After having been duly examined and ratified by the said authorities, the above-mentioned accounts have to be exhibited at some public place, so that everybody may be able to inspect them; in larger places, however, whose financial position will permit the expense, an extract of these accounts has to be published in print. If objections are raised against them, after the above-mentioned examination has already taken place, the authorities have to decide upon the matter.

Dresden, May 5th, 1868.

JOHN.

(L.S.)

Hermann von Nostitz Wallwitz.

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EXTRACT from the CIVIL CODE OF SAXONY, of the 2nd January 1863.

§ 1630.

Married couples are bound to fulfil in truth and faithfulness the reciprocal duties of husband and wife, and to support one another in case of need.

§ 1634.

The husband is bound to maintain his wife in a style befitting his position and fortune, to grant to her the necessary medical attendance in case of sickness, and to bear the costs of burial, should she die without means.

§ 1637.

If the husband should be destitute and unable to gain the necessary means for his subsistence, it is the duty of the wife to maintain him, and when he dies, to bury him at her own expense.

§ 1802.

Parents are bound to maintain their children. In case of difference of opinion between parents as to the education of their children, the final decision lies with the father.

§ 1837.

In the first instance, it is the duty of the father to support his children.

§ 1838.

Should the father die, or be without means, or should it be impossible to sue him in the German Federal States, it becomes the duty of the mother to support the children ; in the last-mentioned case, however, her claim to be reimbursed for her expenses by the father remains intact.

§ 1839.

If the mother be also dead, or without means, or if she cannot be sued in the German Federal States, it becomes the duty of the more remote ascendants, on the paternal and maternal side, according to the degrees of relationship, to maintain the children, reserving their right of being reimbursed for their expenses by the mother.

Several ascendants of the same degree of relationship, who are able to provide the maintenance in question, share alike in the obligation of doing so. If some of those bound thus to support their issue cannot be sued in the German Federal States, the others must undertake their share, reserving, however, their claim of being reimbursed by them for their expenses.

§ 1840.

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In the case of adopted children, the obligation of maintenance on the part of their real parents and grandparents commences only with the death of the adopter, or if he be without means, or if he cannot be sued in the German Federal States, in the latter case under reserve of the right of recurring to the adopter for reimbursement.

§ 1841.

In the case of natural children subsequently declared legitimate, the grandparents on the father's side are not bound to maintain them.

§ 1842.

If Parents or more remote ascendants are unable to maintain themselves, the descendants are bound to maintain them in the same order in which they succeed each other with regard to the right of inheritance. In the case of several descendants being thus conjointly bound to maintain their ascendants, the provisions of § 1839 take effect.

§ 1843.

The father can raise no claim to be supported by his children, (1) if they have been born under betrothal, but before wedlock (Brautkinder), (2) if they have been born under a marriage which is to be considered null and void, he (the father) having acted in bad faith in concluding the marriage, (3) if they have been born under a marriage which has afterwards been dissolved from some reason implying the guilt of the father.

§ 1844.

The obligation to provide maintenance for another person presupposes that the person demanding it has no fortune of his own nor can earn his livelihood.

§ 1845.

The maintenance of children by parents commences from the moment when the interest derived from the children's fortune is not sufficient for their support.

§ 1846.

Under support is meant everything necessary to maintain life in a style befitting the station of the person to be maintained, including at the same time the expenses of the burial at the time of death. In the case of children are also to be understood the cost of education, instruction and the learning of some trade or profession.

§ 1847.

The amount of support to be given depends upon the station and wants of the person to be maintained and the position and fortune of the person who maintains.

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§ 1848.

In the case of poverty on the part of the person legally bound to support, as long as it lasts, there exists no obligation to support. Should a fortune be acquired later, no claim can be made on it for the past.

§ 1849.

A claim for the past can only be made, if the person to be maintained, in order to support himself, has been obliged to contract debts.

§ 1850.

A person under an obligation to maintain somebody has the choice between maintenance in kind or in money.

§ 1851.

The person who has to maintain somebody cannot demand the return of the costs of maintenance, should the person supported acquire later a fortune.

§ 1852.

The right to demand support cannot be renounced beforehand.

§ 1853.

The obligation to maintain ceases with the death of the person bound to maintain.

§ 1854.

Has the person maintained so conducted himself towards his maintainer as to give the latter the right to disinherit him, the former cannot demand relief in conformity with his position, but simply such as he would get at a public workhouse.

~~LEIPZIG.~~

Poor Law Relief in LEIPZIG, by J. A. Crowe.

THE administration of the poor law in Saxony has been the subject of legislation at divers periods since the Reformation, but from the close of the 16th century to the present time the burden of poor relief was invariably thrown upon the municipalities.

System up to
1802. The
Raths Almosen
Amt.

Up to 1802 the duty of relieving the poor at Leipzig was entrusted to an office called the "Raths Almosen Amt," whose office it was to distribute money to the needy, help the ailing with medicine and surgery, and apprentice pauper children. The destitute sick were attended in the hospital of St. Jacob, idiots in the Georgenhaus, and able-bodied paupers who refused to work were confined in the same prison as habitual drunkards. There was also an orphanage and a pauper school for children, and an asylum for the aged in the Johannis hospital. Under the rule of the Raths Almosen Amt, begging became a profession and a pest; and the number of sturdy and habitual mendicants swelled to such

an alarming extent that the municipality found it necessary to reform its system of poor relief. Hamburg under similar circumstances had created a new form of "poor establishment" in 1798 which attracted general attention. The "council" of Leipzig caused inquiry to be made into the rules of this establishment, and founded the present "Armen Directorium" (poor directory) upon its model.

LXXXI.

In 1803 the
Armen Directorium estab-
lished on the
Hamburg
model.

There are no statistics of pauperism at Leipzig previous to 1803, in the autumn of which the Armen Directorium was first set in motion. At the close of 1804 the annual accounts showed a registration of 1,023 cases relieved, with 5,451, or 15·5 per cent., of persons receiving relief in a population of 36,000.

Statistics in
1804.

Though pauperism and expenditure did not keep pace with population at Leipzig, it still remained very high till 1832, when we find the town containing 43,000 souls, with 1,546 "cases" of out-door relief, and nearly 4,000 (or 9·2 per cent.) persons relieved by public charity.

In 1832.

The number of inhabitants in Leipzig increased from 54,519 in 1843 to 94,000 in 1870; the number of cases in the same period from 1,035 to 1,372, whilst the total number of persons receiving out-door relief fell in the same period from 3,300 to 3,075.

In 1870.

The diminution in the per-cent of pauperism from 9·2 per cent. in 1832 to 6 per cent. in 1843, and 3·26 per cent. in 1870, might be considered to indicate the complete efficiency of the present system of administration. But allowance must be made for the effect of important changes in the relation of Leipzig proper to the surrounding villages. For the greater part of the present century, and up to within ten years ago Leipzig was surrounded with a wall for the purpose of checking frauds on the octroi or administration of entrance dues on commodities. House-rent became so dear that the poorer classes found it cheaper to live outside the wall; and in this way the pauperism of Leipzig proper diminished, whilst that of the villages in its vicinity increased. The extent to which this increase took place may be judged from the fact that whereas the population of Leipzig only rose from 54,519 in 1843 to 90,824 in 1867, that of the neighbouring villages rose in the same period from 11,040 to 41,541. It would therefore appear that the low per-cent of pauperism at Leipzig proper in 1870 would be subject to a considerable addition if we could include that portion which presses on immediately adjacent aggregates of poor dwellings. We may assume, however, on the authority of persons well-informed upon the subject, that the per-cent of pauperism in Leipzig and its vicinity is lower now than it used to be, and certainly much lower in proportion than that of Berlin.

Causes of the
decrease of
pauperism.

In 1803, Leipzig was divided into 12 districts, and each district into two or more subdivisions, the districts being in charge of overseers and the subdivisions entrusted to visitors or Armen-pfleger. As the population increased the divisions and subdivisions were increased also, but, as we shall see, the corps of Armenpfleger,

Division into
districts in
1803.

LEIPZIG.

**The Constitutions Acte
of 1805.**

**Principles on
which the
directorium
was founded.**

Its constitution.

**Overseers and
visitors.**

remained constantly undermanned to the great disadvantage of the administration of relief.

The local Act by which the poor law administration at Leipzig was constituted on its new footing is called the "Constitutions Acte." It was drawn up and signed by the Bürgermeister of Leipzig, Dr. Christian Gottlob Einert, on the 30th of June 1805, and provides for the foundation of a poor "directorium," with committees for business, a staff of officers, and a code of rules. The changes made to meet the requirements of new legislation have been small and unimportant, and the Leipzig Armen Directorium of 1872 is, with slight exceptions, similar to that of 1805.

The main principle upon which the directorium was founded was, that it should have its root in the municipal council and yet be independent. It was to be composed of a "society of patriotic men authorised by the municipal council to administer poor relief," subject to control in case of its proceedings not being strictly legal; subject even to dismissal by superior authority, but self-existent, choosing its own officers and visitors, and renewing itself by election.

With this view the directorium comprises 33 members, elected for three years, presided over by one of the Bürgermeister or a senior municipal councillor as chairman, and composed of a vice-director, two municipal councillors, three town deputies, a medical man, a clergyman, an advocate, merchants, professors, artists, and professional men of standing and sufficient income. One third of all the members are bound to retire by lot at the close of each year, care being taken to preserve the elements above described in their proper proportions. The retiring members are eligible for re-election at once for three years longer, and further, after an interval of one year, for a third period of three years, by which means the services of competent and experienced persons are secured for long periods. The vacancies are filled in case of death or retirement, as well as on the occasion of yearly renewals, by ballot, the candidates (one or more of whom are proposed by each member) being registered in a printed list, upon which each voter underlines the candidate he prefers, and the list being put folded into a ballot-box.

The directory chooses from its body a direction, and committees for each of the following establishments: the workhouse, the warehouse and bakery, the clothing establishment, the wood and coal magazine, the sanitary establishment, and the poor schools. Two committees of three are appointed to care for orphans and administer the Arbeit und Dienst Nachweisungs bureau, an office in which impoverished persons are directed how and where to find work or service.

The most important duties of the directorium relate to the appointment of twenty overseers and sixty-two visitors, entrusted with out-door relief in twenty districts into which the town is divided; but whereas the overseers are chosen from the members of the directory, the visitors are assistants elected from amongst the

citizens of the town by the directory, and without a seat or vote at LEIPZIG. the poor board.

The duty of the overseers is to attend conjointly with the visitors Their duties. to the wants of the poor of their several districts, to determine the quantity and kind of relief, and see to its distribution by the visitors. That of the visitor is to receive the application for relief, to visit and watch over each case and ascertain the means of relieving it, to pay the amount granted in money or in kind, to procure medical relief, in fact to see that the needy are made to participate in all the benefits which the poor establishment affords. He is bound to make a personal inquiry into the circumstances of every applicant, to ascertain whether he is in the receipt of private charity, and to make frequent revisions of each case in order that the results of his inquiries may serve as a reliable basis for the measures of the directory. The rules under which the visitor is allowed to grant relief are as stringent in principle as they can well be. In cases of urgent necessity he may give immediate relief either in money or in kind; but I shall have occasion to show that there is not in reality such rigid control as to the form and amount of relief, whether immediate or remote, as to preclude abuse. All the offices under the directorium are unpaid and compulsory, and the persons to whom they are entrusted are usually pleased and flattered at their elections, though at times the duties are heavy enough to weigh on the time of a man of business. No distinction of class, of politics, or of religion, is allowed to influence the appointment of any candidate.

The visitors as a body are not bound to hold meetings within their districts under the presidency of their overseers. They receive communication of the minutes of the meetings of the directorium, and they are responsible through the overseers to the directorium; but there is no means of attaining that uniformity of practice in the granting of relief which is so surely compassed at Elberfeld by the machinery of alternate meetings held by the Pfleger and Verwaltung. On this and other cognate subjects I shall have more to say hereafter.

The rules upon which relief may be granted are laid down in an instruction to which I shall also presently refer.

The "poor directorium" is a free administrative body independent of the municipal council, authorised "after due notice to the superior authority" to raise funds by voluntary subscriptions, and suffering no control as to time or amount in the distribution of the moneys at its disposal. But whenever the services of the police authorities are required or coercive measures are contemplated, the directorium has to consult the municipal council; and with a view to a close and uninterrupted understanding with the town council, it invites the burgomaster (if he is not director) to be present at its meetings, and reports periodically to the council.

Relation of the
directorium to
the municipal
council.

The director, as chairman of the meetings of the directorium, Its meetings and procedure. has a casting vote in all questions mooted. He revises and signs all papers and publications, and is assisted by a member of the

Oversees.

directorium who bears the title of "actor," whose profession is that of the law, and who transacts the legal business of the board.

The meetings of the directorium are held monthly. They take into consideration all matters reserved for discussion; but the right of putting questions for deliberation is vested absolutely in the director or vice-director, whose duty it is not only to state the facts and support them by reference to previous decisions, but to communicate all information as to points previously submitted to inquiry. A paid "Archivar" draws up the minutes and records the resolutions.

The sixteen overseers being all members of the directorium and all present, the board is never without the fullest means of information as to every point at issue.

The meeting further hears monthly reports from the committees appointed to administer the workhouse, and other establishments dependent on the poor administration, of which a list has already been given.

As regards the receipts and expenditure it is needless to say that the directorium has the fullest charge, keeping account not only of the moneys raised by voluntary subscription, but of those derived from special sources determined by law, of those derived from interest of funded property, legacies, and charitable foundations.

Revision of pauper lists by overseers and visitors.

I spoke of the duties of the overseers generally. I may now observe, more particularly in respect of these, that they involve two annual progresses by the overseers and visitors conjointly, amongst the poor of the district. In the course of these progresses the cases are subjected to such revision as formal visitations of the kind may allow, and it is no doubt an advantage that the operations of the visitors and the condition of the poor under their charge should be controlled. But it is very doubtful whether the control is altogether efficacious; firstly, because the number of cases to be visited is seldom under fifty and frequently over a hundred; secondly, because the days of visiting are known beforehand, and the recipients of relief have time and opportunity to conceal such evidence of comfort as might lead to a diminution of the weekly grant. An anecdote may serve here as an illustration of the character of a certain class of poor as well as of the mode of visiting. An overseer on his half-yearly rounds entered a house containing four cases of relief. On the ground-floor was a single woman who seemed to live in some sort of comfort. In one of the upper flats a mother lived in apparent penury with four children. The mother was found to be so miserable that the overseer suggested to the visitor the necessity of increasing her weekly allowance. The woman on the ground-floor overhearing this, broke out upon the overseer and visitor, exclaiming, "Do you mean to say that you are going to give that person more and not increase my grant. I have been twelve years in receipt of relief, and she only two."

Number of districts.

The number of districts into which Leipzig is divided for poor law purposes was originally 12; it gradually rose to 16, and in 1867 to

20; but it is the opinion of men who have had great experience of the administration here, that the overseers' and visitors' districts are too large and too unequally distributed, and the tendency of public opinion in this respect is in favour of a reform which should bring the system more in conformity with that in existence at Elberfeld.

The ideal of the duties and position of a poor visitor has been stated in one of the reports of the directorium. "He relieves the physical wants of impoverished persons, but he also wields an educational influence over them, and is in every sense their adviser." I may admit that in many instances this ideal is attained; but it is far from being attained in all, and this is owing to a fact unchallenged by the best authorities in poor administration here, that the number of visitors is too small, and they have too many cases to attend to. In the report which I have just quoted I find some very serious arguments in favour of a change for the better in this respect. The visitors' subdivisions are equal in area, but unequal in the amount of pauperism which they contain. In the one Pflege there are seven, in another forty cases; "and considering the important duties entrusted to Pfleger, who are the most efficient and necessary organs of our administration, it is almost impossible that they, as men with business of their own to attend to, should properly care for forty pauper cases."

Another and serious defect of the system is the want of proper control as to the manner in which the visitors perform the duties confided to them. At Elberfeld this control is exercised by fortnightly meetings, in which the visitors submit their question papers to a regular revision, and by annual meetings of the higher administration, where every case is revised. At Leipzig, where this control is not exercised, the treatment of paupers in each district and subdivision differs very widely indeed. Not only do some overseers and visitors spend more upon similar cases than their colleagues in other districts, but there is an essential variety in the quantity and kind of grants. Some give more bread than money, others more money than bread. Some give more of both, others less than the cases require. A few allow themselves to be imposed upon; so that according to a paragraph in one of the reports, "It happened several times in the course of one year that grants were withdrawn or ordered to be refunded, because they were proved to have been given upon a false description of their cases by the applicants." Whether such deceptions arise from neglect or want of intelligence on the visitor's part is uncertain; but it has happened that a Pfleger neglected the most elementary of his duties, such as the filling up of a question paper. Yet, as I before remarked, the rules laid down for the guidance of visitors are minute and clear, and as the following paragraph will show, they require no particular study. As general principles of poor relief we find in the "Instruction" this:—

"1. Every North German in any state of the union is, in respect of the mode and measure of poor relief to which he may be entitled, a native of the place in which he resides." [Special

Rules for the
guidance of
visitors.

LEIPZIG. proviso here as to the eventual charge for paupers without a settlement.]

" 2. No person shall be entitled to poor relief unless he is unable to supply himself with the absolute necessities of life, or is without claim to sustenance from persons under legal obligation to support him.

" 3. Persons who are voluntarily supported by others or have claims to sustenance from relations under legal obligation to give it, yet who cannot instantly obtain that sustenance may be relieved, subject to repayment from the parties concerned.

" 4. As a preventive against impoverishment, immediate relief may be given to persons who accidentally fall into temporary distress."

Old scale of relief. Under the older regulations of the directorium there was one in force which gave the maximum of weekly relief to any one able-bodied person as follows :—

- 5 sgr., or 6d., for clothing.
- 7½ sgr., or 9d., for warm food.
- 5 sgr., or 6d., for bread.
- 5 sgr., or 6d., for lodging.
- 3½ sgr., or 4½d., for firing and light.

Aged men, invalids, and women and children were considered to live upon less.

For some years past the maximum has been entirely abolished, and it is apparent from the accounts of the poor administration, that the relief generally given falls far short of the total obtained by casting up the items above given.

Obligation of relatives. The obligation imposed on relatives is more stringent in Saxony than it is even in Prussia. It includes all relations by blood in the ascending and descending lines, man and wife, relations in the second degree, and relations by marriage. And even when the latter are so distant as to be legally without obligation, they may be called upon for contributions on the ground "that they are morally chargeable."

Private charity and public poor relief. I said elsewhere that the visitor is bound to ascertain whether the applicant for relief is in receipt of private charity. No doubt if it were found that the relief thus afforded was insufficient, the visitor would make up the deficiency, but this is a delicate and difficult point to deal with, and one which the Saxon law, especially the general poor law of 1840, made strenuous effort to settle. It was not unknown to the Saxon legislators that one of the difficulties against which poor administrators had to contend with was the liability to relieve persons already in receipt of relief from private charitable societies. It was, therefore, enacted in clause 11 of the "Allgemeine Armen Ordnung,"

" That the administrators of public poor relief might require information from any private charitable society as to whether an applicant for relief or a person receiving relief from the public funds was already receiving support from the society; and if so,

how? the society being held to lie under the obligation to answer the question."

It was stated in the preamble or "Motiven" to the Act, "that though it was well known that private charitable societies were of the greatest possible utility in diminishing the burdens of public charity, still it was not to be denied that their utility would be seriously impaired if they neglected to co-operate with the public institutions, and they might ultimately produce a crop of idleness and sloth amongst such of the poor as were inclined to gain their livelihood by complaint and begging."

Unhappily the Armen-Ordnung enacted no penalty for the refusal of an answer to such questions, and *de facto* when such questions were put at Leipzig, the answer was doggedly withheld. The inconvenience resulting from this was found to be so serious that means have been recently taken to secure co-operation between poor law administration and charitable societies.

At the beginning and in the earlier part of this century the opinion of specialists in Germany was not so unfavourable to workhouses, as we understand workhouses in England, than it is now. They thought it might be possible to keep up such houses without making them a test of destitution. They thought that a workhouse might be made a temporary place of abode for such poor as were able-bodied enough to work, yet unable to get work in the market. The founders of the Leipzig system opened a workhouse in 1804 where paupers chiefly spent their time in spinning. They closed it in 1816, opened it again in 1829, and finally abolished it in 1849. They were of opinion, as I am informed, that the workhouse might be the very best test in existence of pauperism, but that it was calculated to destroy the sense of family ties which the system of out-door relief preserves.

The test of destitution here is the test which is applied at Elberfeld, the rigid and inquisitorial string of questions which makes up the Fragebogen or question paper, to which the applicant can only refuse to reply by surrendering all claim to public charity. But even before the visitor begins to put questions, he warns the applicant that there are preliminary rules of conduct which he must observe; and these he reads as follows:—

"1. Every person who asks for alms has to submit to be questioned as to his circumstances. He is bound to answer all questions put to him truthfully. If he refuses to answer, or answers falsely, he loses all claim to relief, and is liable to be taken in charge for attempted imposition.

"2. Every person in receipt of public relief loses *ipso facto* all civic rights; he is under the charge of the poor administration, and responsible to it for all sins of omission or commission; he is under obligation to give an account of all his doings, and obey all orders that are given to him. His bearing towards the persons who relieve him must always be modest and proper. In case of change of dwelling, notice must be given beforehand to the officers of the administration.

The workhouse established and abolished.

The Fragebogen or question paper to be answered by applicants for relief.

Leipzig:

"3. Every item of relief is for the applicant's own use, and he must neither sell nor part with it to anyone for a consideration."

"4. Every person in receipt of relief is bound to abstain from visiting places of public entertainment. He dare not keep a dog or any domestic animal."

"5. Every person contravening rules 2-4 is liable to lose his grant, or subject to punishment under the police laws."

Some of the numerous questions in the Fragebogen or question paper necessarily have reference to the points contained in the rules I have just stated. "Does the applicant keep a dog or subscribe to the public lottery?" are unfailing subjects of inquiry. But, further, the applicant is asked whether he was ever relieved before, and when; is he married or a widower; is he divorced or separated; which of his children require relief; what school do they attend; how much school money is charged for them; are any of them in educational establishments; have they tutors, and who are they? These are mild and harmless points upon which the visitor touches. The following are more searching;—Has the applicant ever been sentenced, and if so, what is the nature of his present conduct? What is his trade or calling, and what do he, his wife, and children earn per week? Can he reckon upon a certain amount of earnings, or is the amount variable? Has he applied to the "Arbeits Nachweisungs bureau"? Has he a lodging for himself, and does he let any part of it; does he live alone or with another? Is the lodging healthy or the reverse? What rent does he pay? Does the rent include firing, lighting, and bed? Has the applicant bedding and furniture, a savings bank book, or jewellery? Is he a member of a sick club? What does he subscribe to the club? What is the weekly claim upon it in case of sickness, what the death premium? Has he debts; are his things in pawn; from whom has he made a loan, and at what rate of interest? The question paper ends with inquiries as to relatives in ascending and descending lines, and their ability to contribute to the applicant's relief.

But the Fragebogen does not merely contain questions to be answered by the applicant. They contain questions to be answered by the police, and in order to understand the full scope of these, it is necessary to enter a little into the position of the working and servant classes. Every person at Leipzig is registered either as a citizen or as a stranger, and that section of the police office called the Einwohner bureau is charged with the duty of registering the residence and profession of every person throughout the town. The visitor inquires of the Einwohner bureau whether the applicant has a settlement at Leipzig; what has been his conduct; is he industrious and orderly; is he given to drink or incorrigibly idle; is he of dissolute habits; has he been punished by law for any offence, and if so, why and where; is there any other information respecting him? The visitor inquires also of the poor bureau has the applicant received relief at a previous date? Armed with this information before he sees the applicant, he contrasts his statements and tests their truth.

The question involuntarily forces itself upon us on looking at this mass of inquiry—How can a visitor conscientiously deal in this way with forty or fifty cases? We have seen that the answer to this is that he sometimes does not attend conscientiously to all cases. But there is surely a remedy in diminishing the size, and increasing the number of the districts.

It is a cardinal principle of the Leipzig system that the poor Relief to be should be relieved in kind rather than in money, but whilst making given in kind a grant the visitor does not lose sight of the necessity of helping the applicant to some sort of earning. His first duty is to send the poor to the Nachweisungs bureau. Here a number of clerks are entrusted with the duty of registering applications for the hire of labour, and applications of labourers for hire, and a monthly table published in the "Leipzig Tageblatt" shows that there is a demand as well as a supply for labour. The next duty of the visitor is to find work for the applicant; or give him an opportunity to earn the necessaries of life. A calculation is then made of what the applicant earns or can earn for himself, or with help from his wife and children, and upon this calculation the amount of weekly relief, which is not to exceed the bare necessities, is based. With the help of a small table which follows, it will be seen that the average of weekly grants has for many years never exceeded 8 sgr. or $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. in money, or $5\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of bread, whilst the sum of the grant is but little increased by presents of clothing and firing. The same table enables us to distinguish the proportion of widows and women living in separation, and proves the startling fact that one-half of the able-bodied poor receiving out-door relief at Leipzig are widows or separated women, a fact worthy of attention in the present state of feeling as to the relief of widows in England.

Table showing proportion of widows and separated women receiving relief.

Years.	Out-door Cases.	Widows.	Women divorced and separated.	Able-bodied Poor.	Average of Weekly Relief per Case.		Table showing proportion of widows and separated women receiving relief.
					Money.	Bread.	
1855	1,890	717	84	—	Sgr. pf.	Lbs.	—
1862-3	1,266	595	75	1,042	5 6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1863-4	1,242	601	85	1,038	5 8	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1864-5	1,245	622	91	1,045	6 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1865-6	1,262	680	82	1,068	6 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1866-7	1,298	679	77	1,128	7 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1867-8	1,390	710	86	1,212	7 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1868-9	1,372	691	78	1,195	7 8 $\frac{2}{3}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	—

I have been induced to inquire whether the hard terms upon Mendicancy, which relief is given to the poor at Leipzig does not act as an incentive to begging. The answer to this inquiry is that the penalty for begging is heavy and unpleasant; and no doubt there is no sign of begging in the streets, but if mendicancy is unusual in the streets, it is not so in dwellings, and it has been computed by Dr. Stephani, the present Vice-Bürgermeister of Leipzig, that as much money is given away in pfennings to children at hall doors

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Law as to
vagrants and
beggars.

in a year as the whole annual amount of voluntary subscriptions for the poor. Not a year goes by but the poor directorium appeals to the citizens to abstain from giving, and asks the charitable to send all cases to the visitors. Very few persons listen to the injunction, some thinking but indifferently as to begging, others wishing to screen, or unwilling to betray mendicants into paying penalty for their offence. The law as it stands is strongly repressive. It is regulated by the North German Union Criminal Code of 1870 as follows:—

Clause 361.

The following persons are punishable with imprisonment (and, as we shall see by clause 362, with hard labour):—

3. Any persons roving about the country as vagabonds.

4. Any person begging or inducing or sending out children to beg, or neglecting to keep from begging such persons as live in their households or under their control.

5. Any person who gives himself to drink or idleness so as to lapse into a situation making it necessary that he and those dependent on him should be relieved by the authorities.

7. Any person in receipt of public relief who from habits of incorrigible idleness refuses to do the work allotted to him by the authorities and suited to his strength.

8. Any person who, losing his usual means of livelihood, fails to find other means within a period to be determined by the authorities or cannot prove that he tried his utmost to gain a livelihood and failed.

" Clause 362. Persons punished with imprisonment as above may be put to labour suited to their strength and habits within or without the place of their confinement, provided they are not made to associate outside the prison with free labourers. This clause also enables the officers of the provincial police (as distinguished from the municipal police) to confine persons after the expiration of their time for two years in a penal workhouse or to labour for the same period on public works; but as regards beggars or persons suborning to beg, the above penalties can only be enforced in cases where an offender has been several times imprisoned for these offences or has begged with threats or force and arms."

Though ineffectual to prevent begging in houses, this law is effectual enough in helping the poor administration to control the poor. The full penalties are seldom or ever enforced; and it rarely happens that more is done than to send beggars to the House of Correction for fourteen days; but even then the result is not quite satisfactory, and when a beggar is married and father of children he generally succeeds in leaving his family a charge on the poor funds.

Mode in which
the so-called
voluntary sub-
scriptions are
enforced.

I stated that the poor directorium was authorised "to raise funds by voluntary subscriptions." It is a curious peculiarity of the Leipzig administration that the revenue is made up to a considerable extent from subscriptions of this kind, and as the mechanism of the system is not likely to be known anywhere else than in Saxony it may with advantage be described.

Amongst the unpaid officials in the service of the directorium there are 97 persons, chiefly shopkeepers and tradespeople of fair repute, whose duty it is to receive contributions from the inhabitants for the use of the poor. These officials are chosen by the directorium and are called Subscriptions Pfleger; they are furnished with subscription lists drawn up nominally at intervals of three but more usually at intervals of six years, in which particulars of name, address, and profession are given, and the amount which each head of family or each individual has promised to pay. The strange mixture of compulsion and begging involved in the preparation of this list deserves to be chronicled. Whenever a new list is required the poor directory elects from amongst the most respectable citizens a number of subscription collectors whose duty it is jointly with a subscription pfleger to visit every household in the town and call upon the heads of families or single individuals to sign. He tells each person to whom he applies that the subscription is voluntary; that there is no compulsion as to the amount to be subscribed, but it is well known that those who deny themselves or refuse to contribute are liable to be taxed, so that people write themselves down for a sum be it small or large. The collectors having gone over the ground are required to note the persons who could not, after repeated visits, be found at home or who refused to sign. The former are put to renewed pressure by the subscription pfleger, the latter may be summoned at the instance of the municipal council. The efficiency of this system seems doubtful though Leipzig clings to it. In 1804 the voluntary subscriptions were 22,329 thaler (3,349*L*); in 1856, 17,452 (2,618*L*); in 1870, 22,926 (3,438*L*), from which it would appear that the subscriptions are now less by half in proportion to the population than they were at the beginning of the century. Other sources of revenue, and I am bound to say more elastic ones, are derived from the town receipts and from sources devoted almost from time immemorial to the relief of the poor. The municipal council gives 6,000 thaler (900*L*) a year; the fund of the old Almosen Amt contributes 600 thaler (90*L*), and to these I may add the church collections, fines, per-centages on the succession tax, on licenses to kill game, keep nightingales, on permission to give concerts and plays and public entertainments, on legacies and foundations. A table accompanies this report in which the receipts and expenditure for poor administration since 1804 are given; but I think it may not be useless here to give a summary of comparative receipts and expenditure since the foundation of the Leipzig system.

Other sources
of revenue.Receipts and
expenditure.

Year.	Population.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
		Thaler £	Thaler £
1804	86,000	44,154 or 6,623	32,170 or 4,825
1810	30,000	32,310 „ 4,845	31,828 „ 4,774
1825	40,000	28,131 „ 4,219	34,905 „ 5,235
1840	51,000	31,523 „ 4,728	34,463 „ 5,169
1855	70,000	59,485 „ 8,922	54,729 „ 8,209
1869	93,000	68,023 „ 9,453	60,287 „ 9,043

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The population and the receipts have thus been doubled, but the expenditure has been doubled also. The per-cent-age of pauperism was less in 1870 than it was in 1804 or 1832, the sum per head of relief is therefore larger now than of old, and it costs *more* money to relieve *less* poor.

The proportion in which pauperism has varied with the population since the opening of the century will also be seen by reference to a table appended to this report, but the following *précis* is in itself telling.

Numbers of
out-door, in-
door, and
casual poor.

Years.	Population.	Out-door Cases.	Total of Out-door, In-door, and Casual Poor.
1804	36,000	1,023	5,451
1810	30,000	1,083	3,505
1825	40,000	—	—
1840	51,000	1,130	2,768
1854—1855	70,000	1,390	3,510
1868—1869	93,000	1,390	3,171

The increase of out-door cases as compared with the increase of population is trifling, and we get confirmation of the per-centages of pauperism given in the first paragraph of this report at 15·5 in 1804, 9·2 in 1832, 6·0 in 1843, and 3·26 in 1869. But it is to be remembered that in 1804, and for a few years after, it was usual to grant relief nightly to wandering journeymen and travellers, and the casual poor relieved were for this reason very numerous.

The Armen-
haus.

The Armenhaus, a large edifice built in 1855 near the Dresden gate, was planned for the accommodation of 250 persons, but seldom contains more than an average of 120, whose cost of maintenance is calculated at about 20 sgr., or 2s., per head per week. The total expenditure of the house in 1868—9 was 5,209 thaler, or about 781*l.* Like other German poorhouses, it is chiefly inhabited by old and infirm people of both sexes, the majority of whom are over sixty years of age. The master being a member of the directorium receives no salary, and the wages of his subordinates do not exceed 386 thaler, or about 60*l.* per annum.

The hospital.

The hospital, recently rebuilt on the pavilion system, receives on an average of the last three years 500 pauper patients, for whose attendance the poor directorium pays at the rate of 14 silbergroschen (1*s.* 5*d.*) per head per day. But the number of pauper sick under treatment annually is not to be measured by the cases in hospital; for the patients treated by the medical attendants at their own homes average nearly 5,000 every year, and hundreds of patients are gratuitously attended to at the various so called *polikliniken*, of which there is one for diseases of children, one for diseases of the eyes, one for diseases of the ears, one for pregnant women.

Medical relief.

For medical purposes the town of Leipzig is divided into seven districts, each district being in charge of a medical officer appointed

by the directorium. The medical officers' prescriptions are made up by apothecaries invested with the privilege of dispensing medicine to the poor by yearly rotation. A surgeon is appointed to perform operations in the whole of the districts, and there is also a doctor for young children, who attends to all the poor cases throughout the town. The medical men of each district are appointed for three years, and are immediately re-eligible for three years more after the expiration of their first term of office. The salary of each medical man is 100 thaler (15*l.*) a year, that of the surgeon 80 thaler (12*l.*). The expenses for medicine, trusses, and comforts is stated as follows :

		Thal.	£
1866-7	- - -	4,881	732
1867-8	- - -	3,852	577
1868-9	- - -	3,665	549

Orphans are no longer confined to an orphanage but distributed amongst respectable families at a certain yearly charge ; pauper infant children are brought up in an institution called the Zieh-kinder Stiftung, at a yearly expense of 3,000 thaler, or 450*l.* Their number averages about 120 per annum.

There is no heavier source of expenditure at Leipzig than that of public schools. Two of these schools are specially set apart for the use of the poorer and quite impoverished classes. It has long been held, and no doubt correctly held, that nothing is so advantageous to all classes of the community as cheap education. For that reason the Bürger Schulen, of which there are a large number at Leipzig, are so organized as to give elementary education up to the age of 14, at a very cheap rate. But small as these payments are they are still too large in amount for the working man, and it was customary till within the last few years to allow the children of working men to attend the same classes as the children of persons receiving public relief. Since 1866 the system has been altered in so far that every child, even of a person living in part on public charity, must pay something in return for the privilege of attending the poor school, and no child is allowed to come in gratuitously unless it is proved that its parents are absolute paupers. The two poor schools are situated in the eastern and western suburbs of the town, and each have room for 1,500 children. The annual cost of entertainment of these schools is about 10,000 thaler (1,500*l.*), and the amount taken for school money in 1868 was under 500 thaler (75*l.*) a year. The salaries of 33 teachers were calculated in 1863 at 4,735 thaler (710*l.*) and have not since, I believe, been altered.

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Statistics of pauperism.

Years.	Population.	Out-door Pauperism	In-door, Out-door, and Casual Paupers.
1804	36,000	1,023	5,451
1810	30,000	1,083	3,505
1813	30,000	1,288	3,314
1825	40,000	—	—
1828	42,000	1,557	—
1832	43,000	1,546	4,000
1840	51,000	1,130	2,768
1843	61,205	1,055	3,386
1849	62,374	1,417	3,386
1850	63,000	1,240	3,291
1851	64,000	1,288	3,147
1853	67,000	939	—
1854-5	69,986	1,390	3,510
1855-6	70,500	1,201	—
1856-7	72,000	1,160	—
1857-8	74,209	1,143	—
1858-9	76,500	1,128	—
1859-60	78,000	1,172	—
1860-1	78,495	1,180	—
1861-2	82,000	1,238	—
1862-3	84,000	1,266	—
1863-4	85,394	1,242	—
1864-5	87,000	1,244	2,955
1865-6	89,000	1,245	3,011
1866-7	90,824	1,262	3,048
1867-8	92,000	1,298	2,987
1868-9	93,000	1,390	3,171
1869-70	94,000	1,372	3,075

Years.	Voluntary Contributions.	Total Receipts.	Expenditure Out-door.	Expenditure Total.
1804	Thaler 22,329	Thaler 44,154	Thaler 16,268	Thaler 32,170
1810	21,916	32,310	24,791	31,828
1813	17,719	37,759	22,692	29,140
1823	18,694	34,852	15,626	26,185
1825	15,947	28,181	20,691	34,905
1832	14,913	31,078	20,518	31,728
1833	15,231	28,501	17,163	29,590
1840	22,000	31,523	18,218	34,463
1843	15,725	52,443	21,678	35,010
1853	18,985	65,650	22,503	41,579
1854-5	18,455	59,485	28,310	52,945
1855-6	18,791	65,560	29,001	54,729
1856-7	17,452	72,511	25,357	53,315
1857-8	20,766	74,821	21,634	65,758
1858-9	20,318	75,113	22,158	75,202
1859-60	19,669	68,660	24,219	65,891
1860-1	20,662	77,983	27,589	79,669
1861-2	20,367	84,291	30,648	100,256
1862-3	19,414	112,038	29,946	132,476*
1863-4	23,657	77,230	27,758	63,108
1864-5	27,227	89,475	28,342	69,818
1865-6	22,898	88,051	29,775	72,170
1866-7	21,194	83,419	34,757	83,419
1867-8	24,820	85,446	39,654	85,446
1868-9	22,926	68,023	37,438	60,287

* The receipts of 1862-3 and the expenditure of the same year were swelled by loans and expenses for building poor schools.

Leipzig, March 2, 1872.

J. A. CROWE.

**REPORT ON THE ORGANIZATION OF PRIVATE CHARITABLE
RELIEF AT LEIPZIG.**

LEIPZIG.

THERE are numerous societies at Leipzig whose avowed object is to relieve poverty, but all these societies work in a small field and within well-defined limits. I do not think it is within the scope of the questions which have been put to me to do more than mention the following.

The club called the Harmonic, a club in which members meet for the sake of society, newspaper reading, and play, devotes the large annual surplus of its subscriptions to the relief of the so-called bashful poor.

The society of "Friends of the Poor" is an Evangelical-Lutheran society of about 300 members, whose self-imposed duty is to attend to poor persons in periods of sickness. 100 members in turn, males as well as females, act as nurses to, and support with their wealth, an equal number of sick cases.

The "Jüngling-Verein" brings young people of the working-classes, chiefly apprentices, together after working hours to read and hear lectures.

The "Gesellen Herberge" is a refuge for journeymen in search of work, who find lodging and food at a cheap rate without the dangers and contamination of the lower class of lodging-houses.

The "Mägde-Herberge" is a similar institution for young women wandering in from the country in search of places, or for servants waiting for a new service.

The "Wöchnerinnen Verein" is a society of ladies who tend and feed married women of the poorer classes at the period of lying-in.

The "Diakonissen Station" is a Protestant insititution for nurses who attend gratuitously on the sick.

The "St. Vincent Verein" is a Roman Catholic society for the relief of the poor and sick of their persuasion.

The "Kinderbewahr-Anstalten," of which there are four, are open to mothers of the working classes to send their young children at a low rate of payment to be cared for during working hours.

The "Nursing Establishment" or "Krippe" attends to infants of tender age.

Till very lately all these societies were without connexion with each other or with the State, nor were they anxious or willing to enter into any sort of co-operation for the prevention of imposition and the suppression of mendicity.

The first and only effort at co-operation, and one which I am happy to say is meeting with success, is that of the "Verein für innere Mission," which was founded in 1869, respecting which I am enabled to give a sketch in the form set forth in the paper of queries supplied by the society for organizing charitable relief and repressing mendicity in London. It is, however, to be taken into consideration that the verein or society is directed by gentlemen of

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the strictest Evangelical Lutheran persuasion, and therefore in one sense a class institution.

That branch of the "Verein für innere Mission" which most concerns us here is situated at Leipzig, and called "Bureau für Organization der Privat-wohlthätigkeit," (Office for the Organization of Private Charity,) founded in 1870.

Having its office No. 9, Ross-strasse. Office hours daily, except on Sundays and festivals, from 10 to 12. No fixed days or hours of committee meetings.

Chairman, Professor Kuntze, of Leipzig.

Director, Pastor E. Lehmann.

Its objects.

The principal object of the society is to bring about co-operation between the charitable and benevolent societies of the town, in so far as that is possible, and co-operation between itself, the societies, and the poor administration of Leipzig. Its next object is to organize private charity, so as to put down organized mendicity, and above all to suppress the professional begging-letter impostor. The begging-letter plague had assumed a virulent character in Leipzig, and it was chiefly with a view to check it that the "Verein für innere Mission" came into existence. Some 30 heads of families, known as being charitable and wealthy, agreed to send all beggars and begging-letters to one centre, that is, to the office of the society, where each case was inquired into. They reserved to themselves the option of relieving such cases as were found to be genuine by direct intercourse with the applicants or by forwarding contributions to the office of the society.

**Expenditure
and receipts.**

The result of this system is that it is difficult to answer the question, "What amount was received and what amount expended last year." Most of the families in connexion with the society prefer direct to indirect intercourse with such cases as have been proved by the visitor to be meritorious, and for this reason the sums received and expended by the society are small. But this much may be stated, the machinery of the society costs 360 thalers (54*l.*), and of this the greater portion goes to pay the "visitor;" 490 thalers (73*l.* 10*s.*) were expended last year in grants varying from 1 thaler (3*s.*) to 200 thalers (30*l.*), and the latter is the largest amount given in one sum. In the year ending November 1, 1870, 400 cases were visited, 380 begging letters were registered and inquired into, and some sort of knowledge was acquired of the circumstances of 340 poor families. The society distributed 370 thal. 5 sgr. (55*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.*) to 176 cases, under instructions from charitable persons to whom application in the first instance had been made. The grants in 159 cases were money grants of 15 sgr. (1*s.* 6*d.*) to 10 thal. (1*l.* 10*s.*) In six others they were loans of 15*s.* to 3*l.* Nine cases were met by taking necessaries out of pawn, two by partial payments of rent in advance, three by sending children to asylums.

How the funds are raised for the support of the society is partly to be learnt from the foregoing. The subscriptions for the foundation of a mission's house were in 1870 14,916 thalers (2,237*l.*); the yearly subscriptions for the objects of the mission 353 thal.

25 sgr. (53*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*) ; accidental contributions 422 thal. 5 sgr. 7 pf. Leipzig.
 (63*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*)

The society is in personal communication with the poor visitors and poor administration of the town, and affects in the first instance to send all applicants having a settlement in Leipzig to the office of that administration. But I am not quite sure that this rule is absolute. The poor administration co-operates with information, but nothing more.

The charitable agencies in part in charge of ministers of religion co-operating with the society have been mentioned in the preamble to this report. They are the "Friends of the Poor," the society for attending on "lying-in women," the "Kinderbewahr-Anstalten," the "nursing establishments for infants," the "Diakonissen Station," for gratuitous attendance on the sick, and the "Mädchen-Herberge."

They co-operate by giving information, and by relieving cases within their scope at the instance of the society. There are no other district charitable agencies in the town.

The investigations into the cases of applicants are conducted by the society's visitor, that is by a stipendiary agency.

The nature of the investigation is in principle searching, involving repeated visits and exhaustive inquiry through the police and other authorities, or inquiry of relatives, landlords, medical attendants, and clergymen.

Relief is given in money, but preferably in kind, by tickets for wood, coals, and dinners. Relief is also afforded by taking articles out of pawn. Incorrigibly idle and professional beggars are warned that they must work. They are also directed where and how to find work; but money is not given to them. A register is kept in which every applicant and his or her circumstances are minutely noted. Descriptions of beggars are given to the families subscribing to the society, so as they may avoid giving alms to the unworthy.

For the migration of labour, the society has little cause to trouble itself. The laws as modified within the last 10 years throughout Germany no longer impede the free circulation of labour. Guilds are abolished. The freedom of towns is to be had at a cheap rate, and the rules of settlement are such that no person can be expelled from the place of his habitual dwelling because he is a pauper. On the contrary, it is one of the main provisions of the law as it stands throughout the German empire that a pauper, even though his settlement should be elsewhere than in the place of his residence, is entitled to immediate relief when he becomes impoverished, and he is never removed except in rare and special cases.

Loans of money are made to poor applicants in cases of great necessity, but seldom with good results; and it has been found advisable to refer persons wanting loans to the Public Loan Treasury, where they obtain money on condition of repaying it by small weekly instalments.

LEIPZIG.

General measures to improve the condition of the poor.

Statistics.

Of general measures taken to improve the condition of the poor there is little to be said, except that those are not forgotten which zealous and benevolent persons would be sure to recommend. I need only mention the distribution of popular literature, kindly reception and treatment of children in establishments and Sunday schools, Christmas treats, visitations, warnings to attend Church, to read prayers, and to say grace at home.

In 1870, there were at Leipzig 1,533 pauper cases, 1,390 of which were in receipt of out-door relief. The total number of persons relieved was 3,171; the population of the town was, in round number, 92,000, and the per-cent-age of pauperism to population was, therefore, 3·4. But it is to be borne in mind that much of purely Leipzig pauperism is to be found in suburbs not included in Leipzig proper, and the real per-cent-age is likely to be 4, if not 4·5 per cent.

Leipzig, February 10, 1872.

J. A. CROWE.

ELBERFELD.

The Poor Law System of ELBERFELD, by A. Doyle.

In the year 1852—the year before the present system of Poor Law Relief was adopted in Elberfeld—the total number of persons relieved out of a population of 50,364 was 4,000, or just 8 per cent., at a cost of 59,548 thalers, or 8,932*l.*

The present system was established in 1853-4.

In 1857 the population had increased from 50,364 to 52,590; the number of paupers had decreased from 4,000 to 1,528, or from 8 per cent. to 2·9 per cent. on the population; the expenditure from 47,149 thalers (7,072*l.* 7*s.*) to 17,487 (2,623*l.*)

The history of the means by which this extraordinary change was effected is the history of what is known as “the Elberfeld system” of poor law relief; the origin, constitution, and general results of which I shall state as briefly as is consistent with the giving of a fair and sufficiently full account of it.

By a Royal Prussian Decree, dated May 21, 1823, applicable to the Province of Düsseldorf alone, the municipalities (*politische Gemeinde*) were constituted the legal authority for poor relief, and from that time forward the poor law in Elberfeld, Barmen, Düsseldorf, Remscheid, Solingen, and other places within the *Kreis* or circle of Düsseldorf, was administered by the municipalities. Down to 1850 the poor laws in operation within the district or circle were based upon the French legislation under the Empire in the Rhenish provinces. It was only in a certain number of the towns that, until a very recent period, local regulations for the relief of the poor superseded the *Bureaux de bienfaisance*. Elberfeld was one of the towns the municipality of which took advantage of the right to establish a local system of poor law administration.

In 1850 the town was divided into sixty districts, a visitor or *Armenpfleger* being appointed for each district. It is not necessary to enter into any details respecting this earlier organisation further

Origin of present system.**Results of former and present system.**

than to observe that it proved to be unsuccessful. The number of visitors was found to be too few; the duties of the visitor were neglected; the pauperism and expenditure increased; and the condition of the town with reference to its pauper population—their complete demoralisation—was a source of much uneasiness to the more respectable inhabitants. Before the establishment of the present system an attempt was made to cope with the difficulty through the agency of the religious bodies, each community being invited to take charge of its own members. This proposal was accepted by the Lutherans alone, reputed to be the least pauperised class of the community. As the relief of the poor of the whole town was paid out of a common fund, it will be easily understood that for this reason, if for no other, the plan was altogether unsuccessful.

The state of pauperism and the amount of expenditure were in 1852 found to be such as to excite very general apprehension, and it was determined by the municipality to effect a complete revision of the system then in operation. It is worth observing that in the early constitution of the new system the Lutherans were excepted, being allowed to retain the administration which, as I have stated, they alone had adopted for their own community. Within two years, however, after the introduction of the new system, it was found that the pauperism of the Lutheran community, under its separate administration, exceeded the proportion of the rest of the town by about 30 per cent. The result was the abandonment of this exceptional administration, the experience of which, however, is of value as illustrating the effect of two different systems working side by side in the same community and under similar circumstances.

The existing "Elberfeld system" of poor relief originated with one of its most distinguished citizens, the banker Daniel Von der Heydt, who succeeded, mainly by the influence of his high personal character, in so far recommending the system of poor law administration that it may be now considered as firmly established, men of all classes freely admitting its complete efficiency. Indeed a comparison of the pauperism and expenditure of the town before and after the introduction of the system will be found to exhibit results that it would be hard to match in the administrative history of any English union.

The principles enunciated by Mr. Von der Heydt, and which he unceasingly enforced in his annual addresses, are embodied in a general law ("Ordnung") and a code of rules ("Instruction"), the former drawn up by the late Ober Bürgermeister, Dr. Lischke, a man of great energy and force of character, and the latter suggested by the experience of Mr. Von der Heydt himself.

The Poor Law administration which Mr. Von der Heydt originated is constituted under the provisions of an *Armen Ordnung*, or Poor Law, framed in July 1852 and revised in January 1861. Provision is made in the *Ordnung* for the constitution of the several administrative bodies. Their duties and relations to each other are determined, and their proceedings regulated by certain rules. Appended to the *Ordnung* is an "*Instruction*" which embodies the whole of the rules that regulate the administration of relief. The *Ordnung* and *Instruction* taken together are to the Elberfeld system

Poor Law ad-
ministration,
how consti-
tuted.

ELBERFELD. what "the Consolidated Orders" are to English Poor Law. I shall state the effect first of the *Ordnung* and then of the *Instruction*, and in doing so, instead of following exactly the terms or the order of either, I shall embody such portions of each as may appear to be immediately connected.

The town administration or Armenverwaltung.

Under the provisions of the *Ordnung* the administration of the Poor Law devolves primarily upon the *Armenverwaltung* or town administration of the poor. This body consists of a President, four members of the Municipal Council, and four citizens, usually selected from the wealthy and more distinguished inhabitants. They are appointed by the Municipal Council for a period of three years, and retire by rotation. Two members, one being of the number appointed from the Municipal Council and one of the number appointed from amongst the general ratepayers, retire every first and second year, and two of each class every third year. This arrangement, while it secures the renewal of the whole body within each period of three years, secures permanently the services of a certain number who have had some considerable previous experience. The retiring members are eligible for re-election, and are in fact generally re-elected. The only other point in the arrangement of this rotation is that the retirement of the first year is by lot, of every subsequent year "according to age."

Subordinate to the *Armenverwaltung* are,—

Visitors and overseers.

1. The visitors or *Armenpfleger*.
2. The overseers or *Armenvorsteher*.

The offices of *Armenpfleger* and *Armenvorsteher*—visitor and overseer—are unpaid and compulsory. The citizens of each district ascertain by inquiry amongst themselves who of their body are likely to make the most efficient visitors or overseers, and having ascertained, as a matter of courtesy, that they are not unwilling to serve, nominate them for appointment to the Municipal Council. These nominations are usually accepted as a matter of course by the Council, and in the same way sanctioned by the Ober Bürgermeister. These formalities of selection and appointment are found to have the effect of conferring considerable dignity upon the office, which is not lessened by the fact that the selections and appointments are made in the most liberal spirit, without reference to polities or religion, or to any consideration save fitness for the office. The "oath of office" is simply a *handschlag* or grasp of the hand, which is possibly found to be not less binding than the more solemn form of obligation so often exacted from English officials.

Out-door relief, how administered.

The administration of out-door relief is entrusted to eighteen overseers (*Bezirkvorsteher*), or, in case of unavoidable absence, substitutes elected from amongst the visitors or *Armenpfleger*, and to two hundred and fifty-two (252) visitors (*Armenpfleger*). The overseers and visitors are elected for three years, substitutes for one. One third of the overseers and visitors retire every year and are eligible for re-election. Each visitor or *Armenpfleger* has under his charge a certain section of the town, and fourteen of these sections are under the general superintendence of one overseer or *Bezirkvorsteher*.

The visitors of each district meet at least once a fortnight, the ~~ELBERFELD.~~ meeting being presided over by the overseer of the section.

Every application for relief is made to the visitor of the section.

Upon receiving the application the visitor is bound to make Visiting, sys- minute personal inquiry into the circumstances of the case. It tem of will be seen in a subsequent part of this report that the inquiry is of the most searching character. If he be satisfied that a claim to relief, under conditions to be noticed hereafter, is established, and the case be one of urgent necessity, he is authorised to give relief at once. The form and amount of this relief is so prescribed as to obviate, as far as possible, the chance of abuse or imposture.

Reports of relief that may have been given by the visitor, and all applications made to him for relief, are submitted for consideration at the fortnightly meeting. They are disposed of in accordance with certain rules, hereafter to be noticed. Each case is decided by a majority of votes, the President having a casting vote. The President may also object to any decision of the meeting, and carry it by appeal to the next higher tribunal.

The conditions upon which relief may be granted, and under which applications are determined, are laid down in an "*Instruction*" drawn up by the Town Administration. I shall hereafter refer to this "*Instruction*" more fully, and would merely observe of it here, that it defines with great precision the duties and the powers of the visitors. That portion of it which refers immediately to the giving of relief may be regarded as "the Prohibitory Order" of the Elberfeld system.

From this account of the mode in which the meetings of the visitors or *Armenpfleger* are regulated, it will be observed that there is no corresponding administrative body in our poor law system. The counterpart to it with us would be a meeting of fourteen relieving officers, unpaid, each with a district comprising not more than four cases, bound to administer relief in accordance with certain fixed and very stringent rules, each responsible to the majority of his fellows, and all responsible to the higher administrative tribunal, the town administration or *Verwaltung*. It may be further observed that these relieving officers should be selected from amongst well-to-do citizens, shopkeepers, manufacturers, master mechanics, and men engaged in various professions, and that they should be selected upon the simple ground of their fitness for the office.

An opportunity was obligingly afforded to Mr. Crowe and me of attending one of these meetings on the 18th of October. (With a view of avoiding expense, all these district meetings are held in the schoolroom of the district.) Of the fourteen *Armenpfleger* of the district, twelve were present, the meeting being presided over by Mr. Kost, the overseer of the district. Each *Armenpfleger* produced the sheet that is equivalent to our Application and Report Book (*Abhörbogen*), from which the particulars of the cases were read. There was no new case—no fresh application for consideration. Eighteen cases, however, were reheard or revised. One was a case of non-resident relief, an aged widow resident in Elberfeld, but settled in Düsseldorf. The only peculiarity about the case was that the pauper received from Düsseldorf a larger amount of relief than she would have received had she been settled

Applications' for relief, how heard and decided.

ELBERFELD. in Elberfeld ; that is, she received 32 instead of 25 silbergroschen, 8s. $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. instead of 2s. 6d. Some of the applications showed that the visitor within whose district they were comprised had very minute knowledge of the circumstances of each case. In one case a visitor proposed that the relief of an aged widow should be reduced upon the ground that the doctor had certified that she was capable of getting more than the sum returned as "earnings." The visitor of the district thought there must be some mistake ; he "knew that she could not get more." The medical certificate was examined, and was found to be dated so far back as April. Temporary relief was sanctioned, and an order made that a fresh medical certificate should be obtained and produced at the next meeting. Another case was that of a widow with two children, who was in receipt, as weekly relief, of 45 silbergroschen (or 5s. 6d.). It was reported that since the last meeting the two children had got employment, and were now able to earn 20 silbergroschen per week. After some discussion it was resolved to reduce the relief by 5 silbergroschen, with an intimation that a further reduction would be made as soon as it was seen that the earnings of the children were a source of permanent income. Before the termination of the sitting, each visitor received from the overseer the amount in cash of the estimated expenditure of his district for the next fortnight. The source from which these moneys are provided I shall explain presently.

If it should be thought that the cases to which I have just referred are so trivial or common-place as to be hardly worth recording, I can but say that they fairly illustrate the every-day working of the system. They show minute knowledge of the circumstances of each case by the district visitor, and they show the consideration as well as the care with which these circumstances are weighed. The meeting, which was merely one of business, not enlivened by speeches, wrangling, or irrelevant talking, lasted just one hour and ten minutes, and would have terminated sooner, but for the courtesy that allowed us to make inquiry on any point on which we might take an interest. The secretary, always one of the visitors who may be present, made minutes of the proceedings, and these, with the minutes of the several meetings of the other districts, all held upon the same day, would be presented for consideration and confirmation the following week at the fortnightly meeting of the *Verwaltung* or town administration of the poor.

The meetings of the town administration, like those of the visitors, are held fortnightly, but on the alternate Wednesday. These take place in the Town Hall, and in the absence of the President, Mr. Von der Heydt, are presided over by the Vice-President, Mr. Gustav Schlieper. The proceedings of these meetings, like those of the visitors, are conducted in accordance with prescribed forms.

They take into consideration the minutes of the district meetings, which they may alter or annul.

The overseers attend these meetings, give information as to the state of the poor in their districts, and such further information as may be required of them ; submit for consideration such decisions of the district meetings as they may object to or consider to be of doubtful legality ; submit such questions as may have been

reserved by the district meeting as not being within their jurisdiction; submit estimates of expenditure, including money, food, clothing, for the ensuing fortnight; receive from the town assembly the sums appropriated to each district, which they are bound to hand over to the visitor. The town assembly also receives and considers the reports of the several committees appointed to superintend the management of the town poor-house, the hospital, and the orphanage. These committees, or *Directions*, consist of one member of the municipal assembly, and two inhabitants in possession of the municipal franchise. They are elected for three years, one retiring each year by rotation. We were permitted to attend the meeting of this body on the 11th of October. The proceedings were merely routine, that is, the relief lists of the several districts were examined, not as a matter of form, but carefully, and were passed, and orders upon the town treasury for the next fortnight's expenditure were given to the several overseers. To a stranger the impression conveyed by the constitution of this body, and the demeanour of the members, would be what in England might be produced by attending a board meeting of the directors of some important public institution or large commercial enterprise.

The more general duties of the town assembly as prescribed by the regulations are "to investigate the condition of the poor, and "the special causes of existing pauperism, as well as the means "not only of relieving but of preventing it." Special regulations prescribe the management of the financial affairs of the whole poor administration. "The Town Administration of the Poor" has charge of the receipts and expenditure, of which a very full account is published annually. Detailed arrangements, into which it is unnecessary to enter, are made for the control of the moneys that pass from the municipal treasury by orders of the town assembly to the overseers and visitors.

This is a brief, but I believe accurate, outline of the provisions of the *Armen Ordnung*, or what may be termed the constitution of the poor law administration.

The rules for giving effect to the provisions of this law contained in the "*Instruction*" are full and minute; some of them, however, merely technical. As the success of the whole system depends upon the strict observance of some at least of these rules, I shall state them somewhat in detail. In doing this, however, it will be more convenient to embody the substance, and state the effect of several detached provisions that have relation to each other, rather than to state them fully in the order in which they are given in the "*Instruction*."

The first four articles of the "*Instruction*" contain what I presume may be described as "*the General Prohibitory Order*" of the Elberfeld law.

" 1. Every person who is destitute and unable to procure work shall, upon application by himself or by another on his behalf, be relieved from the town funds, except when other persons bound by law to relieve him possess the means of doing so, or "except when he is in receipt of relief from private charity.

" 2. Any able-bodied person being destitute and unrelieved by private charity may, by applying personally or through friends

ELBERFELD. " for relief, and upon proof that he has tried unsuccessfully to obtain work, be entitled to receive temporary relief until such time as he can earn a sufficient livelihood, he being bound in the meantime to perform such work as may be assigned to him.

" 3. Single persons and heads of families whose income suffices to procure for themselves the absolute necessities (*das unabeweislich Notwendige*) of life are not to be considered as destitute, that is, entitled to relief from the public funds.

" The sum to be considered sufficient for procuring the absolute necessities of life in respect of food, clothing, lodging, furniture, and education is, as a rule, to be measured thus:—

- " 25 sgr. or 2s. 6d. for the head of a family.
- " 19 " or 1s. 11d. for his wife when living with her husband.
- " 17 " or 1s. 8½d. for a child of 15 or upwards.
- " 15 " or 1s. 6d. for each child from 10 to 15 years.
- " 11 " or 1s. 1½d. for a child from 5 to 10.
- " 9 " or 10½d. for each child from 1 to 5.
- " 6 " or 7½d. for a child under 1 year.
- " 3 th. 12 sgr. or 10s. 2½d. for a family with five children.
- " 25 sgr. or 2s. 6d. for a single person.

" 4. Poor relief in case of persons earning less than the means of subsistence may be administered as out-door relief by grants of money, soup, clothes, and bedding, indispensable articles of furniture, free schooling, surgical, medical, and midwifery attendance; medicine; cost of funeral; or it may be administered in-door in the town poor-house."

These are the general rules within which the administration of relief is restricted.

It will here be convenient to connect with these rules such subsequent provisions of the "*Instruction*" as more immediately refer to them, and give such further explanations as they may seem to require.

The two exceptions to the first article are important. The Prussian law imposes the obligation of supporting relations in a much wider sense than does our statute of Elizabeth.

a. Parents, grand-parents, and great-grand-parents are bound, if capable, to support their children, grand-children, and great-grand-children.

b. A corresponding obligation is thrown upon children, grand-children, and great-grand-children.

c. Man and wife to support each other.

d. Children-in-law, with certain exceptions, to support their parents-in-law.

e. Parents-in-law, with similar exceptions, to support children-in-law.

Persons hiring domestic servants are bound to support them, or pay the cost of their relief, for four weeks after they become destitute through sickness; so also the obligation to support a destitute person may be incurred by contract, as in cases of benefit societies, burial societies, &c.

Nowhere is the legal obligation of supporting relations, especially the duty of children to contribute to the support of parents, more rigidly enforced than in Elberfeld. It is enjoined in the

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"Instruction" upon overseers and visitors to impress and enforce this duty upon all occasions. A person who is by law liable to contribute to the support of a relation and, being able, neglects, upon being called upon, to do so, was, if the relation become chargeable, liable by the police regulations to imprisonment during such time as the relief might be required.

The second exception must be taken with some qualification of the terms. Although the Elberfeld administration are desirous of keeping charity and poor law relief wholly distinct, and such is the object of this provision, yet it is found to be practically impossible to refuse altogether to relieve poor persons who are in receipt of charity. The utmost care, however, is taken to ascertain whether an applicant for relief is in receipt of charity, and if so, the source, and sum; and relief is granted only to such an amount as to bring the whole income, including the receipt from charity, up to the scale already given.

The system of medical relief for out-door poor is this: The town is divided into five districts, each district being in charge of a medical officer and of a subordinate of a lower *status* termed a "*Heil-diener*," the equivalent, I suppose, of the extinct "barber surgeon," whose functions are only occasional, and confined to the performance of the simplest operations. The medical officer is bound to attend every pauper who applies to him for medical aid with an order from the *Armenpfleger*. This order is essentially the same as our own order for medical relief. The medical officer writes a prescription in every case, which is taken to the apothecary who for the current year has the contract to dispense medicine. In the course of the year 1869 the medical officers wrote for the whole town 2,882 prescriptions, which are produced as vouchers for payment, and attended as medical officers 51 cases of midwifery. The salary of three of the medical officers is 250 thalers or 37*l.* 10*s.* per annum; of the other two, 200 thalers or 30*l.* The five *Heil-diener* receive 12 thalers or 1*l.* 16*s.* per annum each. The cost of medicines for the year was 1,400 thalers or 210*l.* The whole cost of out-door medical relief for the year 1869, therefore, was—

Salaries	-	-	-	1,210 thalers or 181 <i>l.</i>
Medicine	-	-	-	1,410 ,, 210 <i>l.</i>
Total	-		<hr/>	<hr/> 2,610 ,, 391 <i>l.</i>

In-door relief, as understood in English Poor Law administration, that is, as a test of destitution, forms no part of the Elberfeld system. The *Armen-haus* or poor-house has more the character of an almshouse than of an English workhouse. The *Kranken-haus* or hospital does not correspond to our union hospital; nor does the Orphanage (or *Waisen-haus*) to our district school.

The "Armen-haus" or poor-house.

The *Armen-haus*, a large building on the outskirt of the town, contains on an average about 180 inmates. These are old and infirm people who are without homes or families. Although the arrangements and general management of the *Armen-haus* contrast not very favourably with those of an average English workhouse, yet the inmates appear to be comfortable and contented. They

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live very much as people of their class live in their own homes—but little attention being paid to floor space or cubic space, and still less to ventilation; they are sufficiently well clad; the dietary is good; they enjoy more freedom in every sense than would be consistent with the discipline of a union workhouse. In short, an old Elberfeld pauper smoking his eternal pipe in the *Aufenthaltszimmer* or “day-room” of the *Armen-haus*, may well feel that he has got a comfortable asylum for the close of his days. It does not always happen, however, that he does close his days within its walls. Those who are capable of doing any work go out and earn what they can. The wages are paid to the manager of the *Armen-haus*, and when the amount exceeds the cost of their maintenance they are allowed to retain the difference. Through this practice these poor people not unfrequently find permanent work sufficient to maintain them out of the house, while, owing to the great demand for labour in Elberfeld and the very limited supply as well as the character of this sort of labour, wages can in no way be affected by it.

Cost of maintenance in.

The cost of maintenance in the *Armen-haus* is 1 th. 5 sgr. (or 3s. 6d.) per week.

The establishment consists of—	£	s.	d.
Master, 400 th. per annum, or	60	0	0
Surgeon, 50 th.	7	10	0
Clerk, 200 th.	30	0	0
Assistant, 125 th.	18	15	0
4 servants, 40 th. each	36	0	0
Cook, 60 th.	9	0	0
Groom, 70 th.	10	10	0
Carpenter, 17 th. } Barber, 33 th.	7	10	0
2 nurses, 160 th.	24	10	0
General expenses, } fire, &c., 1,000 th. }	150	0	0
 Total expense of officers and maintenance, 2,252 th. }	 838	 6	 0

The hospital or Kranken-haus.

The hospital or *Kranken-haus* is the general hospital for the town, to which paupers are sent and paid for at the rate of 9 groschen (or 10½d.) per day. The total number of patients of all classes admitted to the hospital during the year 1869 was 1,611, of whom 456 were paupers; 207 admitted by order of the overseers, and 249 transferred on account of sickness from the poor-house and orphanage. All that seems necessary to say of this establishment is that it appeared to be well managed.

The orphanage or Waisen-haus.

The orphanage or *Waisen-haus* is fairly well arranged and administered. All orphan and deserted children who become dependent are sent to it. The number in the house is about 260. The number of admissions to this establishment in the year 1867 was—orphans, 63; deserted, 51. The total number of children is large in proportion to the pauperism, and the number of deserted large in proportion to the orphans. I could not ascertain, however,

that the care bestowed upon these children in bringing them up, educating them, and providing situations for them was considered to afford any inducement to desertion. In the instruction of the children, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing are varied by industrial work.

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It may be admitted that the arrangements and management of the Elberfeld orphanage are inferior to those of our own district schools; but on the other hand it may be said of it, in the first place, that the cost of maintenance is only 70 thalers or 10*l.* 10*s.*, instead of from 18*l.* to 20*l.* per annum; and, secondly, that the children who are brought up in it turn out creditably as factory hands, shoemakers, tailors, domestic servants, &c. The work proposed may not be very ambitious, but it seems to be thoroughly done.

Into these establishments no person is admitted who would not be entitled to out-door relief. It will thus be seen that no stress is laid on these institutions as "tests," or as means of checking pauperism. In fact, as I have already said, "the workhouse," in our theoretical sense of the term, is no part of the Elberfeld system; so that with the account that I have just given of the poor-house, the hospital, and the orphanage, I may dismiss the subject of in-door relief.

It was assumed by the framers of the English Poor Law, and is still assumed by those who continue to take any interest in administering it upon the principle upon which it was founded, that no real test of destitution can be devised except the test of the workhouse. As the application of that test is as yet no part of the Elberfeld system, it will be asked—what is the substitute for it?

In the first place the applicant for relief is subjected to an examination so close and searching, so absolutely inquisitorial, that no man who could possibly escape from it would submit to it.

Inquiry into
applications for
relief, system of.

He is not one of several hundreds who can tell his own story to an overworked relieving officer, but one of a very few, never exceeding four,—frequently the single applicant,—who is bound by law to answer every one of that long string of questions that his interrogator is bound by law to put to him. One of the peculiar merits claimed, and I believe rightly claimed, for this system is that before a man can obtain relief it must be shown that he cannot exist without it. When an application is made for relief the applicant is in the first instance bound to state whether he has a settlement in Elberfeld, that is, whether he has resided in it without receiving relief for a period of twelve months, how long he has resided in it, where he resided before, whether he reported himself to the police and obtained permission to reside, or whether he has resided without permission; he is bound to give, with his own name, the name of every member of his family, the day, month, and year of the birth of each, his religious profession, his birth-place, and how long his family resided there, the street or district in which he lives, the number of his house and the name of his landlord, the description of his dwelling and the yearly rent, the state of health of each member of his family, his occupation, the name of his employer, his average weekly earnings, proved, if possible, by a voucher; he must declare whether the family leads a moral and honest life, specify which of the members does not,

Conditions
upon which
relief is given,
their strin-
gency.

ELBERFELD. whether or not the children are sent to school, and where; the name, dwelling, business, and circumstances of surviving parents, parents-in-law, and grand-parents, as well as of the children not living with the head of the family. In addition to this information, which the applicant is bound to give, the visitor is to ascertain, as far as he can, and report "the causes of the pauperism of the applicant." Be it observed that this is not a merely nominal or superficial inquiry in which the applicant has no difficulty in palming off some plausible story of distress and the cause of it, but is, what it professes to be, a strict investigation into the circumstances of the man's life and present position. When the case is satisfactorily proved to be one in which the applicant is entitled to relief he gets it to such an amount only as will furnish the bare necessities of existence for himself and his family; it is given to him from week to week in money or in kind, as may be thought most advisable; if articles of furniture or clothing are given, the visitor must satisfy himself from time to time that they are not pawned or sold. If a member of the family is buried at the public cost, and any of the family follow the hearse "in a coach," the fact is assumed as evidence of ability to repay, and one thaler (3s.) is exacted for the use of the hearse: "No carriage or carriages are "to follow the poor-house hearse, as this would prove that the "relations of the deceased were able to spend money, and prove "that they had obtained the use of the hearse under false "pretences." The applicant having established his claim, and being allowed weekly relief, is constantly "looked up" by the visitor; every change, however minute, in his own condition or in that of his family is noted and reported,—the pauper is, in fact, kept under constant *surveillance*; he is urged to find work, and if he cannot find it, labour is provided for him. It rarely happens, however, that the town is compelled to find work for individual cases; the conditions of relief are found to be sufficiently stringent to induce a man, if he can work and if work is to be found, to find it for himself, if not in Elberfeld, elsewhere, for the circulation of labour is now sufficiently free, and the law of settlement sufficiently liberal. If, however, when this system was first introduced, the administration had to deal with, what in other countries is a too common case, one whose pauperism is the result of idle, drunken, or dissolute habits, no scruple or hesitation was felt in bringing to bear upon such a case the direct influence of a remarkably strict police regulation. It was declared by article 51 that "where a pauper wastes the money granted to him, or sells the clothing, bedding, or furniture granted to him, the relief may be entirely withdrawn or reduced to a *minimum*." By article 52 the following offences were punishable with imprisonment for seven days to one month:—

1. "When a person so far abandons himself to play, drink, or idleness as to require relief either for himself or for those dependent upon him for support."
2. "When a person refuses to do the work assigned to him and suited to his strength."
3. "When a person, after losing the means of support that he possessed, fails to obtain a livelihood within a period to be

" limited by the police of the place in which he resides, or
 " cannot prove that he is unable to obtain a livelihood after
 " doing all in his power for the purpose." ELBERFELD.

[This provision of the police law has been within the last year repealed, much to the regret of those who are responsible for the administration of the Elberfeld system. It remains to be seen how far this relaxation of the police law will in the future affect injuriously the administration of the poor law.]

In the event of any large number of persons being out of work and requiring relief, some public work, generally the making or improving of a road, is at once undertaken. (I may observe, incidentally, that in few towns in which I have ever set foot is there a wider field for such public works as drainage and sewerage.) The efficiency of this test is strongly dwelt upon by the Bürgermeister of the neighbouring town of Barmen, where the Elberfeld system, recently adopted, is now in operation.

The giving of relief is still further fenced round by minute regulations, such as the keeping of a wages book (*Verdienst buch*) by the pauper, the particulars of wages, &c. to be entered by the employer, all framed with a view to discourage applications save under circumstances of absolute necessity.

It was not to be expected that the lax system which had heretofore prevailed could be replaced by one, comparatively speaking, of extreme rigour without exciting a good deal of discontent. The change, though effected in a small community, was in principle as great as that which in England attended the passing of "the new Poor Law," and was followed by the same clamour of the pauperised masses, the same dissatisfaction amongst many of a better class. Against this feeling Mr. Daniel Von der Heydt appears to have taken successive occasions to remonstrate in his annual address to the Poor Administration of the city. I offer no excuse for quoting somewhat fully from the characteristic address which he delivered in 1866-7. "Last year," he remarks, "we referred to the difficulties that beset us in the administration of this system; we observed how hard it was to refuse the pressing demands made for assistance out of the town funds in cases in which we knew that misery was great, yet the town was not bound to grant relief. We added, 'what we administer is not our thalers and groschen, but funds raised by the taxation of our fellow citizens, money meant to be expended under certain recognized conditions and in accordance with certain rules.' An insufficient scrutiny of an application for relief followed by an unjustifiable grant of relief is a great error; but so also is the granting of relief in cases where a sufficient scrutiny has satisfied us that the applicant is already in receipt of an income from private charity or from the funds of a religious endowment. Both of these are errors, neither of which can be justified by the duties of our office, nor be excused under the plea of 'love to our neighbours.' A form of this 'love' which should exhaust the town funds for the purpose of assisting persons not entitled to relief in accordance with the positive conditions imposed by our laws can have neither moral nor social value, and would simply represent our overstepping of the duties that we have promised to perform. It will be a useful

Hostility to
new system.

ELBERFELD. " and proper effort for us all to make, to accept without murmur
 " the disagreeable position in which we must be often placed.
 " One of the most difficult of the duties imposed upon us in
 " administering a poor law is to distinguish correctly the circum-
 " stances which in particular cases involve the responsibility of
 " giving or withholding state relief. I do not mean the difficulty
 " of ascertaining correctly the income of an applicant or pauper
 " from work or from other sources; the means of doing this are
 " indicated clearly in the 'Instructions.' What I mean is that
 " after it has been shown that the head of a family has, according
 " to the scale fixed in our instructions, a sufficient income for their
 " support, or after it has been proved that, though the income is
 " insufficient, the applicant is sufficiently able-bodied to earn a
 " livelihood if he exerts himself, the question not unfrequently
 " arises, 'Is the town bound in such cases to give relief?' It is in
 " the nature of an application for relief in such a case that it is
 " often accompanied by indications of moral debasement or by
 " sickness or bodily defects; but there are also examples of appli-
 " cations on the part of able-bodied persons with incomes in favour
 " of members of their family who are infirm or otherwise not
 " able-bodied, say of children of tender age or of school age. The
 " father says he spends his day at work, will not the town take
 " his wife, who is enfeebled, and their children, who are untaught,
 " into the town establishments, the poor-house, the hospital, or the
 " orphanage? In such cases, I ask, is the Poor Administration
 " legally bound to relieve? If not, then would it be justified in
 " exceptionally sanctioning a system of relief to which it is not
 " legally bound? My answer is, were we to sanction one or more
 " of such cases we should be flooded with them. But it may be
 " said by a district visitor, for instance, 'Suppose we obey the
 " instructions and refuse the application of the husband or
 " parents, what say our feelings as men, what say our pity and
 " our thoughts as to the future of these poor people?' The
 " answer must be, 'Let the man who has sworn to carry out the
 " regulations keep within the limits of his office. Let him
 " remember that the town (*gemeinde*) has given him the charge
 " of relieving the poor only in exchange for his assurance that
 " he will strictly keep within those limits; that it has told him
 " clearly what applicant, if he be in distress, he is to relieve, and
 " how he shall relieve him.' Let us then remain modestly within
 " the bounds of the duty prescribed for us by our superiors.
 " Upon that field we shall find plenty of work to do, even though
 " a section should for a time have no poor in receipt of relief."

The result of administration upon these principles is that there is no able-bodied pauperism in Elberfeld, and, as will appear presently, very little of any kind.

If it be thought that the conditions of obtaining relief are harsh and oppressively rigorous, it is but just to bear in mind not only the instructions that are given to the visitors, but how these instructions are practically observed. Repeatedly throughout the regulations are found injunctions to deal with the poor mercifully, and, if the provisions of the law be unavoidably hard, to administer it at least in a spirit of kindness and Christian forbearance. The visitor is enjoined to "hear the prayers of the poor with love and

heart," to impress upon the father the duty that he owes to his child, and upon the child the reverence that is due to the parent; he is to be, in short, the friend and adviser of the poor who apply to him for legal relief. Although in the same breath, so to speak, in which good advice is tendered bread may be refused, nothing would be further from the truth than to regard this as any indication of a merely sentimental, still less of a pharisaical, interest in the welfare of the poor. It would be easy to illustrate by many cases that were mentioned to us the beneficial effect upon individual families of firmness in refusing to allow them to become paupers while they were helped over temporary difficulties by some slight aid and judicious friendly counsel. Indeed, I have heard men, who appear to have given much thought to the subject, observe that the influence of this sort of intimate intercourse between the poor and those in a much higher social position reaches far beyond the temporary result that is immediately aimed at.

Without pretending to say how far such a mode of administering not charity but poor relief would be consistent with the freedom of English domestic life, or would be tolerated by a people so jealous of personal and family independence, I am satisfied, from what I have seen and ascertained by inquiry, that in Elberfeld and the few other towns that have adopted it, this part of the system works with complete success. Possibly, however, in England it might be less difficult to reconcile the poor to such a system than it would be to find amongst the well-to-do middle classes fit and willing agents for its administration.

Having only incidentally referred to the results of this system as shown by the great reduction effected by it in the pauperism and expenditure of the town, I may now state more precisely the actual income devoted to poor relief, the sources whence it is derived, and the comparative expenditure and pauperism for a given number of years.

The revenue appropriated to the relief of the poor is derived partly from taxes devoted to that special object and partly from the general municipal taxation. The former is derived from interest on moneys invested, from reserve fund of Savings Bank, from the profits of the *Täglicher Anzeiger* newspaper, from police fines, license of theatres, concerts, &c., repayments from patients in hospital, and some other sources, amounting in all to 89,345 thalers or 5,901*l.*, to which is added 49,498 thalers or 7,424*l.* from the municipal funds, which latter sum, by the way, includes five thalers, the tax on the one caged nightingale that appears to be kept in Elberfeld.

The expenditure for the two years preceding the adoption of the present system was:—

	Population.		Expenditure.
1851	-	49,058	-
1852	-	50,364	-

43,879 th. or £6,581 17s.
59,548 th. or £8,932 4s.

The immediate effect of the adoption of the present system was in 1853, with a slight increase of population, a decrease of, upon the expenditure of the preceding year, 29,521 thalers or 49·5 per

~~ELBERFELD.~~ cent. The comparative expenditure for the last four years, with a considerably increased population, was :—

	Population.	Thalers.	£
1852	50,364	59,548	or 8,932
[The year before the system was adopted.]			
1866	64,963	24,842	,, 3,726
1867	65,321	27,182	,, 4,077
1868	67,000	25,559	,, 3,833
1869	71,000	25,739	,, 3,860
1872	-	-	,, 3,908
1873	-	-	,, 4,212

that is, the expenditure of 1869 was 56·7 per cent. less than the expenditure of 1852, the year preceding that in which the system was adopted, while the population of 1869 exceeded that of 1852 by 40·9 per cent. It should be observed, however, that the expenditure of 1852 was exceptionally high. It had increased from 32,286 thalers or 4,842*l.* in 1850 to 43,879 thalers or 6,581*l.* in 1851, and to 59,548 thalers or 8,932*l.* in 1852. It should also be observed that the year 1852, in which the pauperism was exceptionally high, was a year of great plenty, in which labour was not affected by any disturbing cause. To the uneasiness created by this rapid increase of expenditure, accompanied by a corresponding increase in pauperism, may be ascribed the adoption of the present system and the energy with which it was administered.

The comparison of pauperism is not less remarkable than that of expenditure. The reports of Mr. Von der Heydt for 1867 and of Dr. Lischke for 1868, 1869, and 1870 contain tables of the pauperism for several years, from which it would appear that the average number relieved was in—

	Population.	No. of Paupers.
1852	50,364	4,000
1853*	50,418	1,460
1866	64,963	1,370
1867	65,321	1,496
1868	67,000	1,408
1869	71,000	1,062
1872	-	1,835
1873	-	1,863

The general opinion of those persons whom we had an opportunity of consulting is that the system of Poor Law Administration has had a marked effect upon the habits of the people, inducing much greater thrift and providence. This seems to be confirmed by such returns of benefit societies as we had access to. The number of contributors appears to increase steadily from year to year. It was in—

1867	-	-	-	5,175
1868	-	-	-	5,790
1869	-	-	-	6,251

* The first year under the present system.

The constitution of these societies—the *Zwangs Kassen*, or compulsory clubs, to which employers as well as operatives are bound to contribute in certain proportions, and the *Frei Kassen*, or free clubs, to which the work-people alone contribute—is well deserving of separate and full examination. I only advert to the return here as an indication not to be lost sight of in appreciating the general results of the Elberfeld system.

There are persons in Elberfeld and elsewhere who appear to think that as this system could never have been successfully introduced except by the personal influence of Mr. Von der Heydt, so, if that influence were unhappily withdrawn, the administration of the Poor Law would by degrees relapse into its former unsatisfactory state. One can easily believe that but for the courage and energy of Mr. Von der Heydt and the great weight attached by his fellow citizens to his opinion, the system might hardly have had a fair chance. As it was, even Mr. Von der Heydt's character did not save the proposal, when first made, from being publicly characterized as "utopian" and "impracticable," or from being exposed not only to open hostility, but to that sort of hesitating support that is often a greater obstacle than open hostility to the success of any scheme that involves radical change. The success of the system, however, no longer depends upon the influence of any individual. It is in successful operation in Barmen and Crefeld. In neither of these towns could there be said to have been any one person the counterpart of Mr. Von der Heydt. But amongst the wealthiest and most distinguished citizens of both there were found men of sufficient energy and self-devotion to take up the work and carry it through in the face of difficulties even more formidable than it had to encounter in Elberfeld. There would be little danger, I apprehend, that the offices now filled in Crefeld by such men as Mr Seyffardt and by Alexander Heimendahl would not hereafter be accepted by others of the same social position and the duties discharged with the same good-will, though never with greater energy, or with a more just appreciation of the system to which these good citizens have already given such valuable aid.

The success of the system in Elberfeld led to its adoption in 1863 in the neighbouring town of Barmen. In 1862, with a population of 53,831, the number of "cases" in receipt of relief in Barmen was 914, of persons 3,259. Although the year 1863, being a year of great depression in the trade of Barmen, was unfavourable for the application of the new system, yet the pauperism was, through its operation, reduced from 914 cases to an average of 678, and the individuals from 3,259 to an average of 1,915. The average number of "cases" relieved in 1870, with a population of 71,000, was 693, of individuals 1,893. The expenditure for out-door relief in Barmen was—

ELBERFELD.

Elberfeld system in Barmen and Crefeld, success of.

In - - - - -	1862	50,236 thalers.
It was reduced in - - -	1863 to	42,300 "
The in-door relief was in - -	1862	23,688 "
Which was reduced in - -	1863 to	21,600 "
The cost of management was in 1862		6,838 "
Which was reduced in - -	1863 to	4,073 "

If the results of the system in Barmen have not been altogether

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so striking as in Elberfeld, this may perhaps be accounted for by certain differences in the administration, as well as in the previous history of the place. The greatest importance is attached in Elberfeld to restricting the number of cases of which a visitor may take charge to four. The limitation in Barmen is six. The old system in Barmen was that each religious community took charge of its own poor, and this distinction is still observed in the establishments for in-door relief. It may be easily supposed that under such a system habits would have taken root not easy to extirpate, however unfavourable they might be to the administration of state relief upon strict principles. Still the complete success of the system in Barmen is undoubted.

It should be noticed both in Elberfeld and Barmen that the cost *per head* of each pauper is considerably higher than it was under the old system. So in England the cost per head in a well-managed union is invariably much higher than in unions that are greatly pauperised. The deserving poor only are relieved, but they are relieved liberally. In the least pauperised union in the district under my supervision the cost per head of out-door paupers is 4*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; the pauperism in that union is only 2·2 per cent. In an adjoining union, in which the pauperism is 6·1 per cent., the cost per head of out-door paupers is 3*l.* 1*s.* 10*½d.*

The per-cent-age of pauperism in Crefeld before the present system was introduced cannot be ascertained with any degree of accuracy. Indeed the administration of relief was so unsystematic that no records are to be had from which a trustworthy statistical comparison can be instituted between the actual results of the two systems. It is unquestionable, however, that under the old system mendicancy had grown to be an intolerable public nuisance. Street-begging is unknown in the town now. Formerly the distribution of relief gave rise constantly to scandalous disorders that sometimes necessitated the interference of the police. Instead of two or three hundred people collecting and scrambling, as I believe used to be the case, for the bread to which few of them had any real claim, the relief is now regularly paid personally by the *Armenpfleger*, and only to those whose cases have been already carefully scrutinized.

Substantially the system adopted at Crefeld is the same as at Elberfeld. Some differences, however, may be noticed. The most important is that while at Elberfeld the scale of earnings above which no relief is granted is fixed at 25 silbergroschen, or 2*s.* 6*d.*, for a single man, and 3 thalers 12 groschen, or 10*s.* 2*½d.*, for a family consisting of man, wife, and five children, at Crefeld the corresponding sums are 17*½* sr. gr., or 1*s.* 9*d.*, 2 thalers or 6*s.* This scale is fixed upon the calculation that a single man (able-bodied) must pay 7*½* sr. gr., or 9*d.*, per week for his lodging, and 10 sr. gr., or 1*s.*, for his maintenance, and that for a family of five the rent will be 10 sr. gr., or 1*s.*, and the maintenance 10 sr. gr., or 1*s.*, each for man and wife, and 6 sr. gr., or 7*½d.*, for each child. If a man or family earn, or it is proved that they can earn, this amount, no relief is granted. To this severe rule there are, however, exceptions in favour of aged and infirm people, to whose relief some addition *in kind* may be made, and in favour of the children of paupers, to whom clothing to enable them to go to school and school-books, &c. may be supplied and school fees paid. Provision

Scale of relief
in Crefeld.

is also made for the payment of the communal taxes for the pauper, ELBERFELD.
and also for the Imperial capitulation tax.

On the 1st of January 1870 the number of persons in receipt of relief in Crefeld was 1,206 or 509 cases. This upon a population of 55,539 would be 2·17 per cent. This is somewhat higher than the pauperism of Elberfeld, but the system was not introduced into Crefeld until 1864 ; that is, not until eleven years after it had been in successful operation in Elberfeld.

Such being the effects of the Elberfeld system in the three towns in which it has been adopted, it will be of interest to contrast with them the state of pauperism and expenditure in two towns which still adhere to the old system that Elberfeld rejected some eighteen years ago.

No more striking illustration of the success of "the Elberfeld system" can be given than the contrast presented by the two neighbouring towns of Düsseldorf and Aix-la-Chapelle.

When in 1850 the administration of the poor law was entrusted to the municipalities, the town of Düsseldorf was divided into thirty (30) districts. The control of the administration of relief was entrusted to a body elected from the Municipal Council, consisting of a president and six members. Each district was placed under the supervision of a *Pfleger*, unpaid as in Elberfeld, to whom was entrusted the general control of out-door relief. Within the following year the number of districts and *Pfleger* was increased to 44, at which it still remains.

Applications for relief are made direct to the *Pfleger*, who inquires into the cases through the agency of persons selected by himself, called *Armen-Freunde*, and who generally comprise the clergyman of the religious denomination to which the applicant for relief belongs. Upon their report relief is usually granted, though not in accordance with prescribed rules such as restrict the authority of the *Armenpfleger* under the Elberfeld system.

Once in every month the *Pfleger* of the several districts appear before the town administration and report their proceedings during the preceding month. The relief which has been given in "cash, bread, coals, payment of rent, clothes, bedding, or furniture" is either confirmed or disallowed; almost always, however, confirmed.

As might be expected, the effect of such a system is an amount of pauperism exceeding that of Elberfeld by more than a hundred per cent. In the year 1868 the average number of persons relieved was 3,077, or about 797 families, out of a population of 62,700, while in the same year the number relieved in Elberfeld out of a population of 67,000 was 1,408.

It is scarcely possible to institute a comparison between the System of administration in Aix-la-Chapelle and of any of the other places referred to in this report. With the exception of one section of the town, or rather of the inhabitants (*the Evangelicals*), the administration is by a law (*Armen Ordnung*) of 1822 in the hands of a commission, under whose authority the town is divided into eight *Pfarrei* or parishes. Each *Pfarrei* is directly under the management of five *Pfleger*, who receive applications for relief and cause inquiry to be made into them by *Armenpfleger*, who are usually members of the society of St. Vincent de Paul. No *Armenpfleger* has under his care less than 15 or more than 30 cases

Pauperism percentage.

Düsseldorf and
Aix-la-Cha-
pelle, pauperism
of, under un-
reformed sys-
tem.

System of ad-
ministration in
Aix-la-Cha-
pelle.

ELBERFELD. or families. The reports of the *Armenpfleger* are brought before the monthly meetings of the district *Verein*, who decide upon the several cases.

We were unable to obtain any statistical account of the pauperism of this town. The Ober Bürgermeister stated that he believed there were about 1,600 cases or *Positionen* in receipt of relief, and that the expenditure was about 116,000 thalers, of which 56,000 is derived from interest of charitable bequests and 60,000 contributed from the municipal funds. Assuming these statements to be accurate, the pauperism and expenditure of Aix-la-Chapelle would appear to be about four times as great as those of Elberfeld. The population of the two towns is, as nearly as may be, the same, some 70,000.

It only remains to add, with reference to these two towns, that the Ober Bürgermeister of each expressed strongly his opinion that the state of pauperism was such as would compel the municipalities within a short time to adopt the Elberfeld system. That some change of the kind must be effected in the present anomalous system, not in these towns only, but eventually throughout the German Empire, hardly admits of doubt. Within the last few years all restrictions upon the circulation of labour have been removed; while a still more liberal reform has been effected in the law of settlement. By a change made within the last year, Prussia has effected a most important improvement in the law of settlement, one more advantageous to the mass of the people than has ever yet been effected in England. An industrial residence "without relief" of one year now confers, not merely the status of irremovability, but a settlement in the place of residence. One effect of this change will obviously be that, if only as a matter of self-protection, the municipalities throughout the country will be compelled to adopt a much stricter system of poor law administration. As it is, we were assured that many of the poor of Elberfeld and Crefeld find their way to towns like Düsseldorf, in which the system of relief is so attractively lenient.

When this change in the law of settlement is considered in connection with the law of November 1867, to which I have just referred, which removes all artificial restrictions upon the circulation of labour, it appears evident that the adoption of an improved and uniform system of poor law administration, throughout North Germany at least, can be only a question of a few years.

Although my instructions from your Board are simply "to inquire into the system of relief that is in operation in "Elberfeld," I would ask permission to notice briefly some of the more striking points of contrast between that system and our own.

The administrative body in England is the Board of Guardians, assisted by relieving officers; in Elberfeld it is the overseers, assisted by the visitors. The duties that in England are discharged by the guardians and relieving officers, in Elberfeld devolve upon the overseers, "the visitors" or *Armenpfleger* discharging the duties of relieving officers. In addition to this there is the important provision that the proceedings of the *Armenpfleger* and visitors are revised fortnightly by the *Armen-Verwaltung* or higher poor law

English and
Elberfeld sys-
tems, com-
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tribunal. Theoretically at least this system of checks appears to be admirably devised, and is said to work perfectly.

From the nature of the duties that devolve upon the visitor or *Armenpfleger*, as already described, his office is obviously the most important connected with the administration of the poor law, as in our system is, or ought to be, that of the relieving officer. Between the duties of these officers, as practically administered, it is difficult to imagine a greater contrast. The framers of the English Poor Law of 1834 started with a theory of administration not unlike that of the Elberfeld system. Every application for relief was to be rigidly inquired into. All the circumstances of the family, the number of children, occupation, earnings, resources of every description, with other facts more or less relevant, were to be ascertained and communicated to the Board of Guardians for their information and guidance. It was further contemplated by the framers of the English Poor Law that the relief was to be delivered, as a general rule, at their own homes to the paupers by the relieving officers. It is assumed in the English system that all this can be efficiently done by paid officers, many of whom are no doubt zealous, intelligent, and fairly remunerated, but very many of whom, accepting these offices at salaries less than the wages of a skilled mechanic, have barely the qualifications of knowing how to read and write and keep the simplest form of accounts. It is further assumed in the English system that the relieving officer can efficiently discharge the important and multifarious duties of personally visiting and inquiring into and reporting upon all the circumstances and distributing the relief of, let us say, from 400 to 1,000 paupers, the numbers varying according to pauperism of districts of very unequal population. The last annual report of the Poor Law Board contains numberless illustrations of this statement. Thus, opening it at hazard, I find that in the Hoo Union "there is one "relieving officer attending on an average to 112 paupers, of "whom upwards of 50 are children." In the next union, Medway, on the same page of the same report, it appears "there is one "relieving officer who attends on an average to 1,313 paupers, of "whom 606 are children." Assuming that each family of paupers in the Medway Union consists of four persons, the number of "cases" that a relieving officer would have in charge would be 328. In the table annexed to Mr. Henley's report it appears that the population of the relieving officers' districts varies from 5,645, the lowest, to 50,261, the highest. Assuming the pauperism of these unions to be 4 per cent., and that each family consists of four persons, the relieving officer in the one case would have to attend to about 224 persons or 56 cases, in the other to about 2,000 paupers or 500 cases, and so on through the whole kingdom.

When the Elberfeld system was first established in 1853, the number of visitors, or, as we should say, relieving officers, was 60, to a population of about 50,000. It was found, however, to be impracticable for even this large number of officers to personally make the strict inquiries and frequent visits that are required by the regulations already described. The number of visitors was therefore at once increased from 60 to 252, and no visitor is allowed to have in charge more than four cases, or, as they are

ELBERFELD. termed, *Positionen*. When the number of visitors was fewer, the duties of visiting, inquiring, and relieving were not always discharged personally. By men occupied in business the duties were found to be too onerous. The office of *Armenpfleger* was accepted with reluctance; the cases were either left unvisited or were visited by deputy. Indeed one half of the number of offices were practically unfilled, and there was but little personal intercourse between the administrators and the poor. But the men with whom the system originated, and now the men who carry it out in the spirit in which it originated, attribute the whole success of the system to the strict *personal* discharge of duty. "Everything can be done by personal intercourse with the poor, nothing without it," was the remark of the Ober Bürgermeister in discussing the practicability of introducing some such system into large towns in England. The mode of appointment and the duties of the *Armenpfleger* I have already stated. His qualifications are thus indicated in "the instruction" issued to the overseers (Art. 6): "The offices of overseer and visitor are the most important of civic honorary offices, requiring in the persons who accept them a large measure of human kindness and an earnest sense of duty,—kindness to hear the prayers of the poor with love and heart, duty to withstand demands urged upon insufficient grounds, so that idleness and immorality may not follow from indiscriminate almsgiving." Again in article 18 of the same instruction it is laid down to be the duty of the visitor (*Armenpfleger*) "to visit the poor of his section frequently—not less than once in every fortnight; to note in the *Abhörbogen* (application and report book) any changes that may have taken place in the condition of the family, in their income, number, &c.; to satisfy himself that such articles of clothing, furniture, &c. as may have been given or lent are in the possession of the pauper; to reprimand disorderly conduct and immorality; to enforce order, cleanliness, and honesty; to warn parents of their duties to their children, especially as regards education and their attendance at school; to impress upon children that they are to be reverent towards their parents, and to contribute to their support. In short, he must strive to exercise a healthy influence over the moral feelings of the poor." Strangely will such "regulations" as these sound to the ears of English Poor Law administrators; yet in such regulations do the municipality and citizens of Elberfeld believe that they have found the solution of a social problem of great difficulty. The principle of their poor law is strict almost to harshness; the administration of it is tempered by a spirit of benevolence that seems to elevate the system from being merely an instrument of severe repression into an effective means of prevention.

Although this constant personal intercourse between visitors and the poor is the essential characteristic of the Elberfeld system, and that in which it contrasts most strongly with our own, yet hardly less important are some other regulations of the "*Instruction*."

Relief is never granted for longer periods than fortnightly. Under our system a large per-centge of pauperism is "permanent," irregularly visited at long intervals, and only as a matter of form. It would, however, be unjust to ascribe this, the great

SYNOPSIS of the

1870.		Paupers.								
January	2	650 Remaining								
"	15	Discharged	44							
"	29	Remaining	606							
		Discharged	19							
February	12	Remaining	587							
"	26	Discharged	17							
March	11	Remaining	570							
"	25	Discharged	11							
April	8	Remaining	559							
"	22	Discharged	13							
May	5	Remaining	546							
"	20	Discharged	11							
June	3	Remaining	535							
"	17	Discharged	9							
July	1	Remaining	526							
"	15	Discharged	16							
August	12	Remaining	510							
"	26	Discharged	20							
September	9	Remaining	500							
"	23	Discharged	22							
October	7	Remaining	488							
"	21	Discharged	11							
November	4	Remaining	427							
"	18	Discharged	4							
December	2	Remaining	423							
"	16	Discharged	17							
Remaining at the end of the Year		Remaining	406							
		Discharged	19							
		Remaining	387							
		Discharged	8							
		Remaining	370							
		Discharged	7							
		Remaining	373							
		Discharged	7							
		Remaining	365							
		Discharged	5							
		Remaining	360							
		Discharged	12							
		Remaining	348							
		Discharged	6							
		Remaining	342							
		Discharged	8							
		Remaining	334							
		Discharged	9							
		Remaining	335							
		Discharged	2							
		Remaining	323							
		Discharged	8							
		Remaining	323							
		Discharged	8							
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blot in our system of administration, as a fault to the inefficiency of relieving officers. Looking to the tasks imposed upon them by the short-sighted parsimony of guardians, it is simply impossible for them to discharge efficiently what is perhaps the most important of their duties. The effect of constant revision and inquiry into cases is most forcibly illustrated in the table on the opposite page, which exhibits the fluctuation of pauperism in Elberfeld for the year 1870. From this statement it will be seen that in the 26 fortnightly sittings there were 822 new cases. Of these, 52, taking round numbers, in each hundred were discharged in the next following fortnight, and 9 in the second next following fortnight. Thus in one month after the admission of the cases 60 out of every hundred were discharged. They had during that period been the subject of constant and careful inquiry, each case being re-visited "not less than once a fortnight," every change in the circumstances of the families being noted and reported within every fortnight.

Relief is as much as possible given in kind, so as to meet the special wants of cases as ascertained by inquiry.

Instead of the demoralising system of distributing relief at "pay-stations" to the agents of paupers (who frequently deduct a small per-cent-age on the amounts), or to children who may here receive the first taint of pauperism, the relief is delivered generally at the home of the pauper, as it was originally contemplated should be done under our administration.

In conclusion, I may observe that although the "workhouse test" is no part of the Elberfeld system, yet some of the most experienced administrators of poor law in Crefeld, as well as in Elberfeld, look upon this as a serious defect, and one that in course of time must be remedied. Their view of a workhouse, however, is that as a means of testing destitution it should be used not until all other means have failed, and should be used only in cases that would justify the application of such discipline as would make it effective. They would regard as worse than useless a "workhouse" in which the condition of an inmate, whose pauperism was the result of idleness and vice, was better than that of hundreds of ratepayers who are compelled to contribute to his support.

On the Relief of the Poor under the ELBERFELD System, by L. F. Seyffardt, President of the Municipal Poor Law Board of Crefeld, and Member of the House of Deputies. [Translation.]

In Germany the importance of public poor relief is becoming more generally recognized as the number of persons increases, who see the surest guarantee for the real progress of the community in the free, intellectual, and moral development of the individual. From this recognition, indeed, to active interference and the removal of acknowledged abuses, there is a wide gap, which can only be spanned by the combination of sound theory

ELEBFELD. with good practical administration. Whether the necessary reforms would be best carried out by improving the system of compulsory relief, or by supplementing it by founding voluntary organization, must depend on local circumstances. There is something to be said for both plans. The first will always be warmly advocated wherever glaring defects appear in the existing poor laws, the administration of which is entrusted to lax or indifferent officers; on the other hand, the latter will find favour where, the law being comparatively well administered, the conviction is gradually gaining ground that, in spite of zealous efforts, its obsolete construction leaves no scope for theoretical views, and prevents its having any serious influence on social relations. Many attempts at reform in both directions naturally escape public attention, and hence it is a difficult task to give a summary view of them in this country. If such a task were undertaken, according to the observation of the writer, it would probably appear that reforms introduced into the compulsory system have in most places scarcely any other aim than that of preventing the further increase of the burden of the poor rates, while, on the other hand, voluntary charitable organizations, societies for the repression of mendicity, associations for the prevention of pauperism, and so forth, can only come into existence under certain local conditions, and carry with them that dependence on accidental contingencies of every kind, which is the inherent defect of all voluntary agencies.

Among the communal poor law officials are many good men who take a high view of their duties, and who have for the most part, both in theory and practice, got beyond the point of mere almsgiving. Most of them, however, willingly admit that their sphere of action is so wide, and the number of paupers towards whom they have to fulfil the obligations of the community is so large, that they can only judge of the permanent nature of cases of poverty by general tests; and to avoid being imposed upon on all sides they are obliged to confine themselves, according to the best of their judgment and without entering into closer relations with the paupers, to granting scanty relief at regularly recurring intervals, with the appearance of strictness or even of harshness. Among these officers, upon whom the performance of so laborious and thankless a duty devolves, schemes for reform usually culminate in the establishment of workhouses, to which as far as may be practicable they wish to remove all applicants for relief, on the sound principle that the only effectual remedy for poverty and misery is to be found in the desire and capacity for work. Accordingly, they would wish the pauper who has lost the faculty of caring for himself, for the most part through his own thriftlessness or vice, to be incited to new activity by the salutary discipline of a workhouse.

Among those who represented this opinion at the Social Science Congress at Vienna, besides Herr Eras, of Breslau, was Councillor Rickert, of Dantzig, who, in a brilliant and copious report in favour of workhouses, knew how to utilize the materials

he had at his command from his study of the subject, as well as from his own long practical experience of the poor law administration of the town in which he resides. At the beginning of his report Herr Rickert laid stress on the fact that ever since the Congress at Mainz, at which the debate between the defenders of the compulsory and the voluntary systems came to no definite conclusion, there has been a tacit understanding among those who have publicly professed a warm interest in the condition of the poor, that the discussion should be continued on single definite questions. For a small number of experts this might be a good way of arriving at the desired understanding on great opposing principles; but outsiders who long for rational progress in the field of pauperism will never cease at any favourable opportunity from discussing in all their bearings the questions which were raised at Mainz. From this point of view, with every recognition of Herr Rickert's opinions and the many practical hints which he gives, they will always consider his conclusions onesided. This onesidedness consists mainly in the fact that in his advocacy of workhouses for paupers, the interests of the unions who are bound to provide for the poor, and those of society in general, which is obliged to seek some means of defending itself against the increasing weight of taxation, stand prominently forward in opposition to the most essential welfare of the unfortunate beings who have lost, either permanently or temporarily, the power of taking care of themselves. That the latter positively deteriorate under the workhouse system has been uncontestedly proved by Professor Gneist, of Vienna. The plan of withdrawing the pauper in the first instance from all his personal and social relations, and then forcing him to work hard and perseveringly in a narrow confinement as a means of fitting him for a return to the open labour market, is one that demands very serious consideration. Herr Rickert recommends the workhouse only for single adult paupers, but he is undoubtedly an official too experienced and too logical not to see in this the first step towards the plan of maintaining the poor in close establishments, a plan which is novel in most parts of Germany. The single adult paupers form everywhere a very small minority, which might amount to one tenth of the total numbers in receipt of relief only in cases where the overseers have been guilty of gross negligence, and any alteration of the existing system for them alone would scarcely anywhere be a matter of much importance. Whole families would have to be treated in the same way as single men, should admission into the workhouse be applied as the test of destitution, and be made the basis of relief. This consequence has been actually arrived at where the system has been tried in earnest, not only in England, but in parts of Germany, as, for instance, East Frisia and Saxony (compare on this point Bitzer on Public Workhouses for the Poor, Köln, 1868, pp. 13-16). For the proper maintenance of the system it is necessary to separate married couples from one another and from their children, and in this way are loosened those family ties

ELBERFELD. which it should be one main object to preserve and strengthen. But it will be a very doubtful experiment with natures, which, like nearly all who fail in managing their own affairs, are the victims of their own carelessness and indifference, to separate them in the first instance from their nearest relations in order to awaken the effort to regain union with them, and to arouse the feeling of honour:

Besides these general objections to workhouses, there are many special ones, if we bear in mind the endless variety of cases which demand watchful care in the management of the poor, and which would all have to be treated exactly alike, should workhouses be established. The least sentimental of poor law officials would be loth to send to a workhouse the father of a family, who, after a long illness, has pawned or sold his clothes and tools, and sees himself reduced to despair, or to consign to the charity of close surveillance the widow bereaved of her bread-winner and unable to find food and shelter for her children; should they do so, they must remember that though they may relieve the ratepayers, whose pockets suffer when discipline is lax, they are needlessly causing the objects of their care to descend a step in the social ladder. In the most favourable case compulsory association with men who, through long usage, have made themselves familiar with workhouse life, makes them exert all their powers to escape from surroundings so disagreeable, and so return to the world with embittered feelings, and more or less demoralized by the knowledge they have won of the dark side of human nature. In unfavourable cases, on the other hand, their reluctance to express their helplessness, and resignation to their immediate circumstances, is gradually more and more blunted, and they lose all hope of being able to work themselves out of their desolate position.

After these conclusions, whose justice is proved by the experience of England resting on the observation of the effects of workhouses for several generations, it is obvious that the erection of these establishments can only be of importance where the parish officials have not got beyond the totally irrational and antiquated form of almsgiving, which consists in satisfying the demands of all who have a claim for obligatory support. In such places workhouses may have all the advantages which Herr Rickert claims for them. A great number of cases may be excluded which could not previously be got rid of, and thus the communities affected will be in the relatively more favourable position with regard to expenditure in which other communities are which have earlier attained a reform in the condition of the poor by an increased strictness in the investigation and treatment of individual cases. Thus the workhouse is and remains only a palliative.*

* As a proof of the necessity of establishing workhouses, Herr Rickert, in his concluding words at Vienna, hazarded the assertion that even so individualized a system as that of Elberfeld (see below) has lately approximated to this expedient. This statement is founded on a totally false conception. The number of inmates in the city poorhouse of Elberfeld has not increased since 1866; it amounts to 172, of

With or without the workhouse, however, the system of compulsory relief, as it is carried out in most places, must be essentially a superficial one. The disease is acknowledged and the symptoms are treated, but men shrink from going to the root of the evil. Small causes produce great effects, as the saying is; destitute parents beget children, who grow up in misery and ignorance, and are familiar with all manner of wickedness; compulsory school attendance is rarely enforced with sufficient stringency, and thus the parents are enabled to appropriate to themselves the labour of their children. Early marriages make independence impossible; the first illness throws the young household on the parish; drink is the only consolation remaining; and so it goes on from generation to generation in mournful succession. It is always the same families who illustrate this dark side of human existence. They herd together in the worst quarters of the town, and furnish the material for vagrants and felons, whose history is written in the annals of our criminal courts. After every war, after every epidemic, more weaklings fall victims to the mournful lot, and add to the number of those who are at war with respectable society. If for any time, however short, the machinery of public order refuses to act, they form a willing army ready to the hand of any demagogue.

Unfortunately, in the complex life of modern states, the late agitations among the working classes have turned men's eyes away from the condition of those who stand on the lowest rung of the social ladder, and the just or unjust demands of the fourth estate, whose dissatisfaction finds its crudest expression in social and democratic theories, have cast a shade on philanthropic endeavours to improve the condition of the poor and wretched. But in spite of this, the recognition of the greatness of the evil and the necessity of remedying the defects of the communal poor law system has in many places led to earnest consideration as to how an improvement may be effected. Where this has happened an expedient has been almost universally found in the establishment of voluntary societies, usually under the name of societies for the repression of mendicity, the prevention of pauperism, and so forth, whose main object it is to lend a helping hand to destitute persons whom, after strict investigation, they find to be altogether neglected or not adequately supported by the compulsory system, and to permanently watch over the manner in which the means they supply are expended. Naturally the operations of such societies are directed towards those cases which do not seem quite hopeless, in which the demoralization which invariably accompanies pauperism is only in its first stages, and in which it still seems possible to banish the incipient loss of energy by con-

whom 117 are from the age of 50 to 90. The house is, therefore, more an almshouse for aged and indigent persons without relations than a workhouse in Mr. Rickett's sense. It is true that all who are able are made to work, as far as it is possible to compel inmates of an institution who are not obliged to remain. But there is not a single individual in the house who was consigned to it as a test of his need of support.

solation and encouragement, accompanied by active support. The character of this voluntary aid will be essentially preventive, though it will be affected by the opinions of the leaders of the societies as to the objects to be attained. Soon, if they proceed at all systematically, a co-operation with the officers of the communal poor law administration will be effected, and the limits of each sphere of action will be definitely fixed. The most extensive organization of the kind which is known to the public is the "Society for the Prevention of Mendicity and Pauperism," which was founded in Berlin in 1866, and the name of which has since been changed to the "Society for the Prevention of Pauperism." Ample information concerning it is given in the periodical called "Papers on Charity and the Relief of the Destitute," published by Dümmler, which since the 1st of January 1873 has been the organ of the society, and which bears eloquent testimony to the practical ability and theoretical insight of the men who have undertaken the management of a charitable organization so thorough in a capital city where the difficulties of the task are increased tenfold. The history of the organization contained in numbers five and six of the periodical is very interesting. The origin of these efforts was a scheme which was laid before the Berlin Armen-Direction on the 31st of January 1864, providing for the complete separation of compulsory pauper relief from all benevolent efforts which have a wider scope, and which endeavour, not merely to relieve pauperism, but to prevent it, and representing the necessity of setting apart a separate field for voluntary benevolence, the management of which was to be left to private individuals. The unwillingness of the municipal authorities to take the initiative, led to the independent foundation of the voluntary society, but after a while the two bodies entered into closer relations with each other. It is gratifying to read how the working elements succeeded in evoking the very general sympathy of the population of Berlin for the noble aims of the society, and how humanely, yet strictly, the funds at its command were employed.

Though the writer, in summing up the results of so completely organized a system of voluntary association, raises some considerations which might oppose obstacles to the establishment of similar institutions elsewhere, he would nevertheless willingly believe that, under a management so decidedly good and so conscious of a definite aim as that in Berlin, these difficulties have little weight, and are perhaps to be surmounted at once. Certainly if some of the regulations were practically carried out (which hardly seems credible) there would be some ground for criticism; for example, the maxim, "Care which hopes to prevent pauperism must itself seek out cases for assistance." What an opportunity for a zealous and sentimental overseer for turning needy people, who had not before been conscious of their poverty, into paupers! Such details are, however, not of real importance, as the spirit which pervades the whole of the statutes will be a corrective to any questionable regulation.

The principal objection to voluntary organizations free from state control, lies, not so much in the ends proposed, as in their organization (and it is of this that the persons concerned are most proud), in their absolute freedom, and in their absolute independence of the state and of local government.

Amateur agency is an excellent thing; no public man can do without it. When either feeling or conviction urges us to proceed in a definite direction and to initiate reforms for which the existing political parties show little intelligence or zeal; when some wheel in the machinery of state or communal organization grows old and refuses to act; when, in short, we require something out of the common to be done in the interest of the community, our fellow-citizens will always readily respond to our appeal, and with their voluntary assistance we shall be able to accomplish much. When, however, permanent wants of the community are to be supplied, which need time and an unwearyed perseverance rather than a hearty initiation, our experience of life has taught us to rely less on unconstrained voluntary effort than its advocates would have us do. Should a few of the leading and energetic members withdraw, we often see the most flourishing societies vegetate and finally perish, not because their objects are exhausted, but because trifling differences and chance occurrences separate their members. If they were made responsible to the state or commune the remedy would be found in the salutary compulsion which would make taking part in them a duty towards the community in general; like compulsory military service, which helps the patriotism of the soldier by an iron discipline; or like compulsory school attendance, which reminds the father by legal penalties that his child needs instruction and cultivation, and is powerless in his hands. If the original idea of the Berlin magistrates, which was to undertake the separation of communal poor law relief from that administered from charitable funds, in such a manner that the latter should be entrusted to independent local officers, selected by each political union, and having due regard to the legal obligations enforced by law and the executive regulations with respect to settlement, had been carried out, the reform might have had a guarantee of permanence which it does not now possess. All the active and really earnest men who voluntarily labour at this noble work would perform their task with increased satisfaction if they felt that they enjoyed the confidence, not of a small section only, but of all their fellow citizens, and many would join them who otherwise feel no particular call to perform their public duties by looking after paupers.

The thought of raising the compulsory communal system to a higher level, and transferring to it all the aims which can be undertaken by a voluntary benevolent system, is no longer an idle speculation, but has become a fact in the Rhenish manufacturing towns, which, following the example of Elberfeld, have introduced a system of poor law administration, in which the principle of individual attention has been pushed to its utmost

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limit. This was only possible by the fact that the office of guardian of the poor was explained to be an important civic dignity, depending on the election of the town councillors, and that to each guardian not more than four, and usually only two, cases were assigned.

The writer has the honour of being chairman of such an administration in Crefeld, a city of 60,000 inhabitants, and can appeal to his eleven years' experience in support of his judgment of the effect of the reformed management. He is certainly not disposed to view the results in too favourable a light, and only sees an encouragement to further effort in what has already been accomplished; but whenever he has had occasion to discuss the question of pauperism in parliamentary, political, economical, or official circles, he has always had his impression strengthened that the Elberfeld system presents the most perfect form of pauper relief which is known to us. It unites that economy of the funds drawn from the ratepayers which, as has been stated, the compulsory system always endeavoured to secure, with the theoretical watchfulness and preventive activity of voluntary organizations. It renders economy possible, not by repellent harshness, but by a rigid distinction between the undeserving and those who are really in want, and thus makes it possible to care sufficiently for the destitute, and to lend a helping hand to those who are trembling on the verge of pauperism.

The system has been much discussed, and has received its full share of recognition and praise; among others from Lammers in Emminghaus' book on pauperism and poor law (Berlin, 1870, Herbig), and lately by the deputy of the English Government, the poor law inspector, Mr. Andrew Doyle, in his report addressed to Mr. Stansfeld, President of the Local Government Board, and intended to be presented to Parliament. We may be allowed to quote from this report a passage which refers to a comparison between Elberfeld, Barmen, and Crefeld, where the new organization has become law, and Aix-la-Chapelle and Düsseldorf, where the old system continues in force. On page 25 Mr. Doyle says, "No more striking illustration of the success of the Elberfeld system can be given than the contrast presented by the two neighbouring towns of Düsseldorf and Aix-la-Chapelle," and on page 27, after explaining the contrast, "It only remains to add, with reference to these two towns, that the Oberbürgermeister of each expressed strongly his opinion that the state of pauperism was such as would compel the municipalities within a short time to adopt the Elberfeld system. That some change of the kind must be effected in the present anomalous system, not in these towns only, but eventually throughout the German empire, hardly admits of doubt." We may also quote the conclusion of a leading article in the "Times" of the 8th of December 1871, speaking of Mr. Doyle's report: "However, here is a model, and while we have it and are assured that it is in good working order, let it not be said that nothing can be done. Even if we give it up as a bad job, and confess that Prussia

" beats England in social organization, as in a few other matters,
" let us be honest and wise, and admit the fair inference that the
" fault lies within ourselves."

In opposition to the views of the highest administrative officials of such towns as cling to the old system, men who certainly have an opportunity of forming a sober judgment, free from illusions, on the reforms which have been carried on in their midst during the last ten or twenty years; in opposition to the impressions which the English official received during his residence of several weeks in the Rhine provinces; in opposition to the fact that in that part of Germany a whole series of middle-sized or small communities have, at least partially, adopted the Elberfeld system, opinions are from time to time expressed in the public press that the favourable results which have been attained depend on local circumstances, and that the possibility of the universal adoption of the system is at least doubtful. It will be sufficient to notice one of these unfavourable judgments, coming from a competent authority and contained in numbers three and four of the Berlin papers, to which reference has already been made, and from our knowledge of the circumstances referred to, to demonstrate it to be untenable. In this article it is stated that the difficulty of finding the necessary voluntary agency has not been experienced at Elberfeld, because pauper relief is there a most popular institution, in which every respectable citizen considers it an honour to take part, and towards which there is consequently a general inclination. Granted the fact, it only follows that in Elberfeld the good object has been rightly apprehended by the authorities, who by awaking a sound feeling of public duty, and by systematically furthering it, have fired their fellow-citizens with an ever-increasing desire to perform this honourable task. It by no means follows that this desire has sprung up naturally and without assistance, but it shows that a co-operation with the system and an acquaintance with its good results are quite sufficient to keep up a lasting interest in the work of relieving the poor. Furthermore, the circumstance that Elberfeld is exclusively a manufacturing town, and pursues the same or nearly the same branches of industry, is represented as a reason why the whole population feels itself closely united in their most essential social interests. This may be true, but the fact that a social democrat was returned at the last Reichstag election sufficiently shows that the conclusion drawn from it is false. The indifference of the cultivated classes, especially that of the large manufacturers, who are always decried as despoilers of the poor workmen, to social questions is commonly and justly looked on as the principle cause of the growth of social democratic views. How, then, can a close union of sentiment which is not recognized by the working classes be a particularly favourable ground-work for attempts at reform? Further, the ecclesiastical life, which is undeniably strong in Elberfeld, is said to materially lighten the work of administering the new system. This is true in the sense that in Elberfeld the tendency of all hierarchical societies to make

ELBERFELD. analogous spñeres, such as the management of poor relief or of schools, subject to their own particular aims, has been overcome ; but it is not true in the sense that the ecclesiastical life is sufficiently earnest to admit the advantages of communal over church aid, unless forced by circumstances and the dominant capacity of those who administer the communal relief ; and in Crefeld, which is situated on the left bank of the Rhine, and where the upper classes do not show any marked ecclesiastical spirit, exactly the same interest in the Elberfeld system has paved the way for its adoption. Finally, the success of the Elberfeld experiment is ascribed to entirely personal influence, especially to that of its founder, Herr Daniel von der Heydt. However highly one may have reason to think of the position of this gentleman, everyone who knows Elberfeld at all will bear testimony that his high political and religious position have rather hindered than assisted him in the execution of his benevolent idea. It is the result which stamps his work and himself with unqualified praise ; it is the result which both in Barmen and Crefeld has obtained the approval of the citizens for the new system.

At the Social Science Congress at Vienna the writer spoke in favour of the Elberfeld system of individualizing the care of the poor from his deep conviction that it is not an ephemeral one, but is relatively the best attempt yet made at reforming the present mediæval fashion of dealing with pauperism to suit the exigencies of modern times. He was anxious to make known what had been attempted and what had been accomplished,—to invite criticism, and eventually to induce others to do likewise. The object of this pamphlet is the same. A copy of the regulations for the management of the poor on the Elberfeld system which have been introduced into Crefeld, and a reprint of the report of the Crefeld Poor Commissioners on their work of the last ten years, from the pen of the author, are appended.

The report confesses plainly that, through want of experience and adequate statistics, no positive judgment as to the results of the new organization for poor law relief is as yet possible. But from the explanations which are given with the figures, and from the general observations, it will be seen that public opinion, anticipating this judgment, has already sympathized to the utmost with this reform, and has recognized its definite maintenance to be indispensable. It has been already shown that the best guarantee for its further existence lies in its official character and organic union with local government. Naturally enough, all those who are nominated visitors of the poor are not good visitors ; some, even with the best intentions, have not the same natural aptitude as others. The mutual working of three factors, visitors, district committees, and central government, ensures, without bureaucratic interference, a comparatively speedy correction of the lukewarmness and carelessness which will appear in one direction or another. If in time, owing to weak or narrow-minded management, the whole system should refuse to work,

the municipality have the remedy in their own hands, since they nominate the officials.

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In conclusion the author may be allowed to call attention to one point in the organization which, according to his experience, is of even greater importance than the original object of merely improving the system of pauper relief. For years people have talked about local government, about the share citizens should take in the life of the community, about reducing the army of official quill-drivers; nor is it to be denied that in many places the magistrature and common council have adopted these views, and endeavoured to put them into practice. A further step in this direction has been the adoption of the new district regulations for the Eastern provinces, to which must follow the undoubtedly analogous reforms of the Provincial Statutes (which are shortly to be discussed in the House of Representatives) and of Communal Government.

When the growth of circumstances renders a change necessary, it is certainly most desirable to turn to account the activity of as large a number of citizens as possible in a good many departments of public life. Not only would the cause be benefited thereby, but a larger number of persons would learn to consider it a duty to take part in public life. The share of work allotted to each person in the scheme we have been advocating is so small that the busiest merchant or workman could afford it. With good-will anyone can find time to devote two or three hours to the service of the public.

Perhaps it will be objected by some that they do not feel themselves specially called upon to come into close contact with people who are in the densest state of ignorance, or to put themselves into situations where they must feel in the words of the poet,—

“ A long forgotten horror seizes me,
Mankind's unutterable woe.”

This objection may be real for those aesthetic souls who seek the ideal in isolation from the facts of human life, and in poetic illusions; but it has no weight for him who, feeling that he is the child of the nineteenth century, has learnt by his ideal view of life to take an active part in the progress of human culture. The greatest enemies of a healthy political development are the contrasts in education and prosperity, in thought and feeling, which to-day, as a thousand years ago, exist between different classes of society in the same nation. To change these contrasts into degrees of culture depending on talent, industry, and personal effort is worthy of the labour of noble men.

A better means of gaining an ever-increasing number of workers in the social tasks of our day could not be devised than an arrangement by which those who live in fortunate circumstances should be led by a feeling of public duty to enter the miserable hovels of their poor and unfortunate brethren.

BAVARIA. Poor Law Relief in BAVARIA, by V. Daxenberger.

(Translation.)

Munich, February 14, 1872.

IN reply to the esteemed note of the 30th of October of last year from Sir H. Howard, late Her Britannic Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, the undersigned has the honour, after having consulted with the Minister of the Interior, to make to Mr. Fenton, Her Britannic Majesty's Chargé d'Affaires, the following communication relative to the question of the relief of the poor in Bavaria.

The legal foundation for the administration of public relief to the poor in Bavaria is provided by the very exhaustive law of April 29, 1869, entitled "A law relating to public relief to the poor and the sick," a copy of which is enclosed herewith. A very complete commentary on this law has been published by Mr. E. Riedl, a Royal Bavarian Governmental Counsellor, and is to be had at the library of Mr. C. H. Reck, of Nördlingen, and the undersigned begs to call the attention of Her Britannic Majesty's Government to this work, as it, at the same time, reproduces the provisions of some other laws bearing on this subject.

In answer to the several points of inquiry (contained in Sir H. Howard's note) the following observations are submitted:—

The nature of the legal provision for poor relief.

1. As regards the nature of the legal provision for the support of the poor, this is in so far obligatory that throughout the whole country a legally organised system of relieving officers must be established, whose duty it is to assist persons in need of relief, and to endeavour to prevent their complete pauperisation; and under certain circumstances the assistance of the governmental authorities may be invoked by the necessitous person, for the purpose of compelling the relieving officers to perform those duties. These authorities are, however, only bound to afford relief in cases where actual necessity has been proved, and then only when such relief is not to be obtained either from those who would, if able, be bound by law to sustain or relieve the necessitous person, or from voluntary relief societies or establishments. (See Article 4 of the Poor Law.)

Obligations of relations.

According to Bavarian law ascendants as well as descendants, and husband and wife, are reciprocally under obligation to afford relief one to the other, but not brothers and sisters or other relations.

Private charitable institutions.

Under the term voluntary relief, as above made use of, is included that rendered by the clergy or from purely church funds, as well as that resulting from private charity. The latter is dispensed in Bavaria to a very considerable, and daily increasing, extent, taking the form of charitable institutions of various kinds, as well as that of associations established with a view to the attainment of special and defined objects, such, for instance, as societies

for the establishment of refuges; of "children's gardens;" of institutions for the care of young children or of babies; for affording assistance to poor women during their confinement, and to re-convalescents; for providing firewood for the necessitous; and for assisting persons liberated from penal establishments. Amongst the most active of these, and the most widely extended, by means of branches established throughout the State, are the St. John's Society, the rules and regulations of which are enclosed herewith, and the St. Vincent's Society, both of which have a recognised legal status; and other societies may also obtain legal recognition provided they be legally organised.

An association for rendering voluntary assistance to the poor, which was founded at Munich in the year 1869, has undertaken the organization of the most comprehensive system of poor relief, and endeavours to carry out its objects in the closest combination with the local board of public relief. Copies of the statutes of this society, as well as of the organic rules of the Board of Public Poor Relief at Munich, are enclosed herewith.

2. As regards the principles upon which legal provision for the poor is founded in Bavaria, the two principles above referred to are especially important, namely, that the affording of such provision is obligatory, but, at the same time, subsidiary. It is primarily the duty of the "political community" (i.e. a community having a recognised municipal organization) to provide this relief, but each district community (a combination of several political communities) may also be called upon for special contributions, in addition to those flowing from the province itself, such being in some cases obligatory, in others facultative, towards the relief of any particular localities which may be specially overburthened (with expenses on account of provision for the poor). For instance, towards the establishment or maintenance of workhouses, pauper hospitals, refuges or lunatic asylums, savings banks, or pauper agricultural colonies.

A further principle is that the poor have no right to prefer a claim at law (before a judicial authority) for public relief.

Every taxpayer is bound to contribute towards the necessary expenses for the maintenance of the poor, in proportion to the amount of direct taxes paid by him to the State; and the communal authorities are empowered to demand, in advance, from persons who, it may be thought probable, will fall into the condition of requiring gratuitous hospital relief, payment of a special contribution towards meeting the expense of such ultimate relief.

The rates for the relief of the poor are assessed and levied in the same manner as those for all other communal purposes. There is no difference in regard to them, either with respect to the classes of persons liable to them, or to the mode of apportioning and levying them. On the other hand, contributions in aid of hospitals can be levied on certain classes of persons, and in certain fixed weekly amounts, only so long as they continue to serve or to work within the territorial circumscription of the commune; and by the

Mode in which funds are levied.

BAVARIA.	payment of these contributions such persons acquire the right to hospital assistance.
Council for poor relief.	3. In each "political" commune there is a special organization for the management of public relief to the poor, known as the "Council for Poor Relief."
District council.	The affairs of the "district" poor relief are managed in the same manner as other affairs concerning the district, by the "District Council."
Provincial council.	The affairs of the "poor relief of a province" are under the direction of the provincial council ("Landrath").
Constitution of the councils for poor relief.	The councils for poor relief consist partly of <i>ex officio</i> members, and partly of members elected by choice. To the former belong the burgomasters and the parish priests of the district, as well as the district government doctor, if he has his official residence within the district. The details with reference to the election of the members chosen by vote are to be found in Article 23 of the Law of April 29, 1869.
Statistical returns.	All the members of the poor relief council perform their duties gratuitously.
Public institutions.	4. Statistical returns with reference to public relief to the poor, so far as such returns exist, namely, those contained in No. 2 of the annual series for 1871 of the periodical publication of the Statistical Department, as well as in No. 2 of the same publication for 1869, are transmitted herewith.
Lunatic asylums.	5. Hospitals, almshouses, workhouses, and poorhouses exist throughout the State, and are almost exclusively local or district institutions.
Workhouses and schools.	The public lunatic asylums of Bavaria occupy a prominent place. They are chiefly "provincial" institutions (<i>i.e.</i> established and maintained out of "provincial," in contradistinction to "State," funds), and each province possesses one.* They are on a scale calculated for the reception of from 300 to 600 patients, and are built and organised at great expense on the model of the best and most modern institutions of the kind. An establishment of this description especially worthy of notice is the provincial poorhouse and hospital at Frankenthal, in the Palatinate, into which large numbers of indigent persons from all parts of that province are received.
	The only kind of Government pauper institutions which exist are the workhouses for beggars and vagrants (who are treated of under the next head), and, further, educational establishments for young persons belonging to the beggar and vagrant classes. Of these Government institutions there are at present five in the whole kingdom.
	As regards the principles upon which poor persons are admitted into the above-mentioned provincial or local institutions, these

* Note by the Translator.—Bavaria is divided into eight provinces, and each province, according to its territorial extent, into a certain number of "districts." The population of each province varies from about 830,000 to 492,000.

differ very considerably, according to the special purpose of the several institutions, and also according to the statutes and internal regulations of each of them.

As a general rule, the poor relief council decides on the nature of the relief to be afforded, and regulates the mode in which it is to be given. The council is empowered to obtain work for those who are in a condition to perform it, and in the event of such persons refusing to obey the special regulations or injunctions of the council, either with reference to relief to be afforded, or work given them to be done, or of their disobedience to orders during their stay in any pauper establishment, the council may, so long as this disobedience is maintained, refuse to grant them any relief.

6. The mode in which vagrants and beggars are dealt with is governed by paragraphs 361 and 362 of the German Penal Code of May 5, 1871. Persons convicted of vagrancy or begging may be punished by being made to perform certain labour, either within or without a penal establishment, and in certain cases they may be sent by the police authorities, for a period not exceeding two years, to a workhouse, or may be made to perform certain labour for the general public benefit.

This mode of treatment is applied to beggars, tramps, persons who will not work, and to those who make a living by immoral practices; but the latter, when under 16 years of age, are sent to Government educational establishments.

7. The liability in respect of poor relief to be afforded rests in principle with the (authorities of the) place of birth or domicile, but, at the same time, every commune is bound to supply relief, in cases admitting of no delay, to persons becoming destitute whilst sojourning within the precincts of the commune. The communal authorities may, however, in this case claim reimbursement of their outlay from the authorities of the place of birth or domicile of the persons relieved.

But an exception to this latter rule exists in respect of trades journeymen and apprentices, workmen in manufactories, or other descriptions of day labourers, who, in the event of illness, have a right to the necessary assistance, during a period of 90 days, from the authorities of the commune in which they may at the time be employed, though not domiciled there, without these authorities having any claim to reimbursement from those of the place of domicile of the persons to whom such relief has been afforded.

8. Poor foreigners who, during their stay in any communal Foreign district of Bavaria, may stand in need of public assistance, have a paupers. right to be provided with the absolutely indispensable means of continuing their journey, and likewise to the same indispensably necessary relief as a native whose place of domicile is in another commune.

Necessitous foreigners may be sent to their homes, provided this be not impossible on account of their being ill, and the expenses thus incurred are borne by the State, if repayment of them cannot be obtained from the country to which such foreigners may belong.

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Success of the system.

9. The system of public poor relief, as at present in force in Bavaria, dates, in all its more important features, from the year 1816.

This system had to such an extent proved itself a good one that it was adopted, in the main, in the new Legislative Enactment of 1869, and was specially reserved to Bavaria by the Treaty of Versailles of November 23, 1870, in preference to the general Poor Law of the Confederation.

The Bavarian system, whilst it offers a sufficient guarantee that relief shall not be afforded to those who are able to work, ensures, on the other hand, that no really necessitous person shall remain without assistance.

The place of birth or domicile constitutes its leading principle and legal basis, and from that point of view it must be judged as a general system for carrying into effect the duty of relieving the necessitous.

I avail myself, &c., &c.,

For the Minister,

H. P. Fenton, Esq.,
&c. &c.

(Signed)

v. DAXENBERGER,
Councillor of State.

SUMMARY of LEADING FEATURES of the BAVARIAN POOR LAW of April 29, 1869.

The objects of the public provision for relief.

The objects for which public provision for the poor is instituted are,-

1. To afford assistance to necessitous persons.
2. To endeavour to prevent their becoming complete paupers.

Only those persons are to be considered as necessitous who are without the indispensably necessary means of sustaining life or health.

To whom relief may be granted.

Public relief is only afforded on proof of absolute want, and when no assistance can be obtained by those seeking it from relations or other persons legally liable for their support, or from voluntary or private charity.

Persons who may have received public relief whilst possessed of means of their own, or who may, within five years from the receipt of such relief, have become possessed of means, are bound to repay the amount of relief received. The same rule applies to the relations or other persons legally bound to afford relief.

The right to public poor relief is confined to claiming that which is necessary for sustaining life or health.

Workhouses.

Persons to whom public relief is granted are bound to perform, within the measure of their strength, certain labour, either within or without a public workhouse or other establishment.

Rules for the management of these establishments are to be framed by the poor relief authorities, and approved by their superiors.

The former authorities likewise regulate the discipline of such BAVARIA.
establishments.

Restitution of the expense of public relief afforded may be Recovery of claimed from the property left by persons who have been so relieved. relieved, provided such relief was afforded within a period of five years previous to the person's death.

In every "political commune" (or municipal district) a local The poor relief system of provision for the poor must exist, and be carried into effect by a local or communal "poor relief council."

The first duty of this council is to provide relief for necessitous persons born or domiciled in the commune, and, as a general rule, the duties of the relief council are the following :—

1. To afford relief to persons who are partially or entirely unable to work, such relief to consist of indispensably necessary food, clothing, lodging, and firing.
2. To provide sick persons with medical assistance and medicine, and to cause persons mentally afflicted, who are not under proper supervision, to be placed in lunatic asylums.
3. To provide burial for persons who have died without means.
4. To provide for the education and support of poor children.

Persons capable of work are not to be relieved, except in certain exceptional cases.

Servants, journeymen, apprentices, and workmen in general are to be relieved, if they fall ill, in the commune where they may at the time be employed. Should such relief be afforded for more than 90 days, the commune has a right to indemnity from the locality where the persons relieved have been born or are domiciled.

In the case of lunatics taken to an asylum, the cost of relief is chargeable, from the first day on which it is afforded, to the locality of birth or domicile.

Every commune is bound to afford relief to necessitous persons sojourning within it, whose domicile is unknown or uncertain, until this be ascertained. The same relief and means of prosecuting their journey must also be afforded to strangers in need of temporary relief.

Persons dying under such circumstances must also be buried by the poor relief council.

For all costs thus incurred, the commune has a right to claim reimbursement from the place of birth or domicile of the persons relieved.

Two or three communes may combine for the general relief of their poor.

Local or Communal Poor Relief.

Communal.
relief.

The sources from which the means for local or communal provision for the poor are to be raised are the following :—

Mode in which
funds are
raised.

1. Interest from the local communal poor fund.
2. Revenues derived from local charitable foundations.

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3. Contributions specially awarded by law for the relief of the poor.
4. Special local taxes legally levied under enactment in the commune, and payable on marriage festivals held in public hotels or taverns, and on other descriptions of public festivities or amusements, horse races, concerts, public balls, theatres, shows, &c.
5. Contributions made regularly or specially from the public funds of the commune or other public funds.
6. Voluntary presents and bequests, collections amongst the public, lotteries, and other special sources of income.

If the receipts from these sources should prove insufficient, the sum still required is to be made up by rates levied in accordance with the municipal constitution, in the same manner as all others levied for the requirements of the commune.

The sums raised as above described are to form a separate fund, to be devoted only to providing relief for the poor, such fund to be under separate and special administration.

Workmen, labourers, &c. from other communes may, whilst working within any particular commune, be called upon by the authorities of the same to pay a regular contribution towards the sick fund, such contribution not to exceed three kreuzers (one penny sterling) a week.

The same rule may, in certain cases, be applied to persons of the above-mentioned class who have been born or are domiciled in the commune, especially if they have no household of their own, or do not live with their parents.

Persons having paid this contribution acquire a right to hospital assistance.

Extensive employers of labour may be called upon by the poor relief council to make provision for assistance to their workpeople in case of sickness, and they are then at liberty to establish in their manufactories a special sick fund, and to require their workpeople to contribute towards it.

These workmen are then liberated from any payment on the same account to the public authorities.

The poor relief council shall be constituted of the following persons :—

1. In communes having a municipal organization and constitution (cities and towns), the burgomasters, the municipal councillors, and other members of the municipality; all the parish priests and heads of the Jewish religion, if there be any in the commune; a certain number of members specially chosen; and, lastly, the Government doctor of the district, if resident within the commune.
2. In smaller communes, the burgomaster and other members of the municipality, the priests, &c., chosen members, and the doctor, as above.

The number of members to be chosen is decided by the magistracy,

Compulsory contributions to sick funds by workmen.

By employers of labour.

Constitution of the poor relief council.

The burgomaster is chairman of the poor relief council.

All its members perform their duties gratuitously.

The council is empowered to appoint certain of its members as relieving officers or poor inspectors for specified districts of the commune.

Persons elected can only refuse to serve on the poor relief council on the same grounds as those on which they would be dispensed from serving a municipal office.

The members of the poor relief council are legally responsible for dereliction of their duties or abuse of their authority. Their responsibilities and duties.

The poor relief council decides all questions of granting or refusing relief, as also the extent and duration of such relief.

It is authorised to assist in finding, or to provide, work for persons inclined to work, but unable to procure it.

Relief may be refused to persons who will not submit to the injunctions or regulations respecting such relief, which may be laid down by the relief council.

It is the duty of the poor relief council to provide and maintain all necessary establishments and make all other arrangements for giving relief to the poor. But as regards the question of incurring any serious or permanent expense in regard to such establishments, the council is only to act with the concurrence of the regularly constituted municipal authorities.

The relief council must, in the course of the last quarter of each year, draw up an estimate of the probable requirements in money for the relief of the poor of the commune for the following year, and present the same to the municipal authorities.

All accounts for each year must be made up and rendered by the 1st of May following the end of such year.

*District * Poor Relief.*

The duties incumbent on the "district poor relief" are,—

District poor relief.

1. To assist those particular communes which are heavily burthened with poor relief expenses.
2. To maintain the existing charitable institutions and hospitals of the district.
3. To collect and promote the increase of a special district poor fund.
4. To establish district poorhouses, workhouses, pauper colonies, and hospitals, as well as establishments for the care and education of deserted children.
5. To establish savings and lending banks and other similar institutions.

The means for meeting the cost of the district poor relief are Funds. the following:—

1. The interest on the district poor fund.

* N.B.—A "district" is the territorial subdivision of a province, and comprises several communes.

BAVARIA.

2. The special contributions from the State funds, or from provincial funds, from foundations, associations, and corporations.
3. Voluntary contributions from State, or provincial, or communal funds, or from private persons residing within the district, and having industrial establishments in it.

If these sources should not provide the necessary funds, the deficiency is to be supplied by rates to be levied by the district authorities.

Administration. The management of all matters connected with the "district poor relief" and the administration of the district poor fund, as well as of the charitable institutions, is vested, in the same manner as the management of all other "district" affairs, in the legally constituted "district council," and the committee of that council.

Provincial Poor Relief.

Provincial poor relief. The following subjects come within the sphere of provincial provision for the poor; viz., the establishment and maintenance of charitable institutions, workhouses, pauper colonies, lunatic asylums, and other sanitary establishments; further, the rendering of assistance to districts which are overburthened with expense on account of the poor.

Administration. The provincial provision for the poor is placed under the direction of the provincial council, in conformity with the law of 28 May 1862 on the constitution of those councils, which law also prescribes the mode in which the funds required for the provincial poor relief shall be raised and applied.

The administration of the poor relief by the communal authorities is placed under the supervision of the Minister of the Interior, as represented by the local government authorities, to whom the communal officers are immediately responsible.

The supervision, by the government authorities, of the administration of poor relief in the districts and provinces is regulated by the law on the constitution of the district and provincial councils.

Foreign Office,

April 6, 1872.

SIR,

I AM directed by Earl Granville to transmit to you, to be laid before the Board, the accompanying papers received from Her Majesty's Chargé d'Affaires at Munich, containing information respecting the organization of charitable relief and repression of mendicity in Bavaria.

I am, Sir,
Your most obedient humble servant,

The Secretary to the
Local Government Board.

ENFIELD.

The accompanying papers contain replies to the questions respecting charitable societies abroad, set forth in the enclosure in Lord Granville's despatch, No. 56 circular of November 20, 1871, in so far as those questions apply to the two charitable associations existing at Munich, namely, the "Society of St. Vincent de Paul," and the "Association for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor."

These replies, as regards the first-named association, have been compiled from the statutes of the society and its general report for the year 1871; those concerning the Voluntary Relief Society have been furnished by the chairman of the society itself, Dr. Martin.

The St. Vincent's Association was established 25 years ago by a combination of persons belonging to the aristocracy, the clergy, and the upper class of *bourgeoisie*, under the patronage of the King and the royal family, and with the especial approval of the catholic clergy of Munich; and the latter have always assisted and promoted the interests of the association. At the period at which it was founded, the preponderating spirit of the Bavarian Government, of the municipal administration, and of society in general at Munich was essentially catholic, and to a great extent conservative, on the question of politics; and there was a generally harmonious understanding between the catholic clergy and the population at large. The St. Vincent's Society reflected this state of things, and, as a natural consequence, assumed a catholic and conservative character. And in spite of the events of the year 1848, and the very great social and political changes which resulted therefrom, both at Munich and in Bavaria generally, this society always retained, and continues to retain at the present day, the characteristics which belonged to it from its outset. Moreover, until quite recently, it was still the only charitable organization of the kind in the Bavarian capital.

The Society for giving Voluntary Relief to the Poor is, on the other hand, an entirely new creation. It came into existence in the year 1870, and was set on foot by an association of persons belonging almost exclusively to the middle and trading classes, and amongst its leading promoters, the majority were known as active members of the advanced liberal and anti-catholic political party; a party which during the last 10 or 15 years has become numerically the strongest amongst the population of Munich.

It should be mentioned that a year or two previously to the establishment of this new charitable society, a complete revolution had occurred in the spirit and character of the municipal administration of the capital.

That administration had, down to the year 1869, been entirely in the hands of the conservative and clerical party; but on the new municipal elections taking place in that year, under the law passed a short time previously for the re-organization of the municipal corporations, the choice fell almost exclusively upon persons belonging to the advanced liberal and strongly anti-catholic party.

BAVARIA.

It was under the special patronage of the new municipal corporation that the Society for Voluntary Relief of the Poor was established, and it was at once placed by them in close relation with the system of public poor relief which had been provided for under the new Municipal Corporation Bill.

From the mere fact of the new society having been set on foot under these circumstances, it at once assumed in general public estimation more or less of a political character, and, rightly or wrongly, it was denounced by the conservative and clerical party as having been in reality founded much more with a view to party purposes, and especially with the object of influencing the political elections in Munich, than from motives of pure charity.

It was also added that one of the chief objects of the new association was to counteract the influence exercised by the St. Vincent's Society.

Unfortunately party politics have, since the time in question, continued to run so high at Munich, especially in all that concerns the proceedings of the municipal authorities, that almost every matter of local interest now seems to be judged solely from a party point of view.

The practical result of this state of things, as it affects the position of the two charitable associations above referred to is, that each has come to be considered as representing a distinct social and political element ; the St. Vincent's Society being reputed as the representative of the aristocracy, the catholic clergy, the more strictly catholic portion of the citizens, and the conservative and catholic party generally ; whilst the Voluntary Relief Society (though assisted by many quiet inhabitants who take no part whatever in political questions), is generally held to represent the re-organized municipality, a majority of the middle and trading classes, and the whole political party professing liberal, ultra-liberal or democratic, and, as a consequence, anti-catholic principles. Amongst the latter, the Jewish community, which scarcely had any existence at Munich 20 or 30 years ago, but is now numerous and is daily increasing both in numbers and wealth, plays a very prominent part.

It is scarcely necessary to add that under the state of things above described, considerable animosity exists between the St. Vincent's and the Voluntary Poor Relief Societies, and that there can be no question of any harmonious co-operation between them.

QUESTIONS.

Name of country and town ?
Name of society ?

Date when founded ?

ANSWERS.

Bavaria, Munich.
Society for the Voluntary
Relief of the Poor.

Founded July 22, 1869 ; re-
organized January 1, 1871.

QUESTIONS.

BAVARIA.

Address of the office ?

Head office of the Society for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor, in the street called "Landschaft's Gasse."

Office hours ?

Daily from 7.30 a.m. to 6.30 p.m.

Day and hour of committee meeting ?

a. District committee once a month, in the afternoon.

b. Administrative committee once every three months, in the evening.

c. Meeting of the superior authorities, when necessary.

d. Annually one general assembly.

e. District assembly in the month of January.

Dr. A. Martin, member of the medical council, and professor at the University.

Mr. F. S. Ries, assessor of the police court.

The Society for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor in Munich has for its object, in connexion with the system of public poor relief and charitable institutions, to relieve the poor in Munich, without reference to their place of domicile, religion, politics, &c., &c., as also the checking of pauperism and house and street begging within the limits of the town.

Total sum received in 1871, Florins 27,498 42 kreuzers.

The total expenditure amounted to Fl. 22,821 12 kr.

Twice 10,000 florins as general fund to be invested as capital of the society. Largest current donation in one sum Fl. 500.

Five florins.

By collecting the voluntary contributions announced, giving monthly receipts for the same.

BAVARIA.**QUESTIONS.**

Do the State relief authorities co-operate with the society?

If so, with funds?

Personally?

With information?

Have ministers of religion in the town charitable agencies of their own?

And if so, do they co-operate with the society?

By serving on the society?

By relieving cases within their scope at the instance of the society?

Are there any other *district* charitable agencies in the town, and i. so, do they co-operate with the society?

ANSWERS.

No.

Only the Association of St. Vincent, which is under the direction of the catholic clergy. The other associations of the same kind, under the same influence, such as the "Orphan Society," the "Society of St. Mary," for "Catholic Maid Servants," &c., are established for special objects, and do not co-operate with the Society for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor.

The last-named society, as soon as it was founded, endeavoured to connect itself with the St. Vincent's Society, in order that they might work together, and thereby avoid the evils inseparable from a divided system of relief, and, by mutually reporting to each other, to agree together as to who were to receive relief, as also respecting the form and amount of the same. These proposals, however, were positively declined by the directors of the St. Vincent's Society.

Since that period the St. Vincent's Society has persisted in maintaining a declared hostile attitude towards our Society.

That society (the St. Vincent's) administers relief in the several parishes of the town without any reference to the Voluntary Relief Society.

The most important agency of this description is the organization for public communal relief of the poor, established in accordance with the provisions of the law under which the municipal corporations are con-

QUESTIONS.

ANSWERS.

BAVARIA.

stituted. Its duty consists in affording relief in those cases in which private charity proves itself insufficient. With the above-mentioned system of relief the Society for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor is in the closest relation. They work hand in hand. Such is equally the case on the part of the Society for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor with the "Society for providing Fuel for the Poor," which extends its operations over the entire town. There are no other charitable establishments of any importance, the operations of which are of a general character, embracing the whole circumscription of the town.

These investigations are conducted voluntarily by the doctors of the poor (parish doctors), and members of the society.

Ascertaining the state of health of the applicants, and whether or not they be capable of working. These investigations are made by the doctor for the poor, and by means of inquiries instituted by the members of the committee of the society.

Relief is in general given "*in natura*" (in the shape of food), and only in exceptional cases in money.

To the working classes, *i.e.* to such workmen as may be wholly or in part incapacitated from work, and to their families after their death, as also to the widows and children of labourers or servants of the humble class.

Professional mendicants are not relieved by the society. Members of the society, who proclaim themselves as such by affixing the society's placard to

Are the investigations into the cases of applicants conducted by voluntary or stipendiary agencies?

What is the nature of the investigation?

What is the nature of the relief given?

To what classes is relief principally given?

How are mendicants treated?

Is the migration of labour promoted; if so, in what way?

Are loans granted; if so, under what circumstances?

Are any general measures taken to improve the condition of the poor; if so, of what character?

- a.* By improving the dwellings of the poor?
- b.* By promoting sanitary improvements?
- c.* By promoting provident habits?
- d.* By promoting temperance?

What is the ratio of pauperism to population?

their doors, are expected, on being applied to by mendicants, to send them to the society.

The Society for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor confines its operations, as a rule, to necessitous persons actually resident at Munich; in special cases, however, an exception to this rule might possibly be made; but this question has not yet been settled in a practical form, inasmuch as no necessity for it has yet presented itself.

No. The experience acquired in this respect, especially with reference to loans granted by the Government for the encouragement of industrial undertakings, has been too unfavourable. Industry was not benefited, and the loans were not repaid.

The society, from its comparatively short existence, and its relatively circumscribed means, is not yet in a condition to deal actively with the subjects here indicated, but proposes to itself in due time to give its attention to the subjects referred to under letters *a.* and *b.* As regards the subjects under *c.* and *d.*, the society cannot, under the state of things as it exists here, promise itself much success.

At the present time the number of persons registered in the books of the municipality as necessitous is 2,000. The number of those in regular receipt of assistance from the Society for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor is 1,500, and the number of those receiving relief from associations under the direction of the clergy is about 1,000. The population of Munich according to the last census is about 170,000.

General Remarks.

BAVARIA.

On the whole Munich cannot be called a particularly rich city. Its geographical position is not favourable to trade, and as it has only lately been freed from the restrictions imposed by the old system of close trades corporations, very great or advantageous results cannot as yet be expected to have followed upon that liberation from the influence of the clergy and the stagnation resulting therefrom, the disinclination of all catholic populations to energetic enterprise, and their preference for continuing in the ways of their forefathers are still very visible. The fact of Munich having the distinction of being a capital city, and the residence if not of a very great still of a larger number of people of means and of charitable institutions than any other town in Bavaria, has always been favourable to house to house begging. In short, the claims on the charitable are great, greater than they ought to be in proportion to the extent of the population.

Old standing evils of this kind which are the growth of centuries can naturally only be removed by degrees, and by means of persistent endeavours extending over a generation or more.

Satisfactory signs of improvement are, however, already visible, namely, with regard to the emancipation from clerical influence, the liberal majority in the town councillors who were elected three years ago, the diminution in the number of registered poor, and the decrease in the number of charitable institutions under the control of the clergy, whilst the number of the members of the Society for the Voluntary Relief of the Poor has increased from 3,000 to 5,200, and these belong to the most intelligent part of the community.

(Signed) Dr. A. MARTIN,
 Royal "Medicinalrath."

QUESTIONS.

ANSWERS.

Name of country and town ?

Bavaria, Munich.

Name of society ?

Association of St. Vincent of Paul.

Date when founded ?

1847.

Address of office ?

Office hours ?

Once a week.

Day and hour of committee meeting ?

1st president, Count L. Arco-Zinneberg.

Chairman ?

2nd president, Rev. J. Pfaffenberger, Catholic Parish Priest.

Name of honorary secretary or secretaries ?

M. Riedl.

Objects of society ?

To afford spiritual and material relief to the poor and the

BAVARIA.**QUESTIONS.****ANSWERS.**

**Amount received last year;
(year ended September 30,
1871.)**

Amount expended last year.

Largest amount given in one sum.

Largest amount of weekly relief given.

How are funds raised for the support of the society ?

Do the State relief authorities co-operate with the society ?

If so, with funds ?

Personally ?

With information ?

Have ministers of religion in the town charitable agencies of their own ?

And, if so, do they co-operate with the society ?

suffering on Christian principles, and after the example of St. Vincent of Paul.

The number of ordinary and extraordinary members of the association for the year ended September 30 1871, was 1,390. The number of benefactors independently of the members was 119.

Florins 22,226 40 kr. Balance remaining from previous year Fl. 576 10 kr. Total available sum for the year Fl. 22,802 50 kr. Invested capital of the association Fl. 37,150.

Fl. 22,475 10 kr.

The number of persons regularly assisted was 1,088. Number of children placed in educational institutions 170. Number of poor persons partially assisted 851. Number of sick persons visited and relieved 145. (Not stated.)

(Not stated.)

They are derived from voluntary contributions from members of the royal family and private individuals; from subscriptions of the members of the society; from legacies; collections in the parish churches, &c. Also from public raffles, for which, however, in each case the necessary permission must be obtained from the local authorities.

No.

(See answers with reference to the Voluntary Relief Society.)

The catholic clergy of Munich co-operate with and promote the interests of this society very efficaciously.

QUESTIONS.

By giving information?
By serving on the society?
By relieving cases within their scope at the instance of the society?

Are there any other district charitable agencies in the town, and, if so, do they co-operate with the society?

Are the investigations into the cases of applicants conducted by voluntary or stipendiary agencies?

What is the nature of the investigation?

What is the nature of the relief given?

To what classes is relief principally given?

How are mendicants treated?

Is the migration of labour promoted; if so, in what way?

Are loans granted; if so, in what way?

Are any general measures taken to improve the condition

ANSWERS.**BAVARIA.**

There is a complete understanding and community of action in these matters between the association and the catholic clergy.

(See answers respecting Voluntary Relief Society).

These are undertaken gratuitously by members of the association.

Material assistance is rendered, as a rule, in the form of food, firing, clothing, &c., and only in exceptional cases in the shape of money. The general principle acted upon is that of assisting efficaciously limited numbers of necessitous persons, and especially whole families, rather than frittering away the resources of the society by affording insignificant relief to multitudes.

Spiritual assistance is given by means of personal visits, good advice, the loan of religious books, and the placing of children with religiously disposed families or in institutions.

(See the foregoing).

To all necessitous classes indiscriminately, but preferentially to those belonging to the catholic church, and to those who are in receipt of relief from public poor funds, or from other associations, or from private individuals.

There is no special provision under this head in the statutes of the society.

Do.

Do.

Do.

BAVARIA.**QUESTIONS.**

of the poor; if so, of what character?

By improving the dwellings of the poor?

By promoting sanitary improvements?

By promoting provident habits?

By promoting temperance?

What is the ratio of pauperism to population?

ANSWERS.

(See observations under this head in answers from the Voluntary Relief Society).

AUSTRIA.**Public Poor Relief and Treatment of Vagrants and Beggars in Austria, furnished by the Austro-Hungarian Government.****Settlement.**

In Austria Public Poor Relief is based primarily on the principle that relief must be granted at the place of birth.

It is, therefore, first of all incumbent upon the commune (Gemeinde) to grant relief to those who are known to have been born within its limits.

The commune may relieve poor born elsewhere, but has then a right to demand reimbursement from the native commune of the applicants.

Public relief a local duty.

It is unassisted in this, its duty of granting relief by the district, province, or state, except in cases where poor relief includes other matters beyond the resources of individual communes.

This is specially the case where humanity requires the building and maintenance of establishments, the erection of which cannot be expected from individual communes, either because it would entail economical disadvantages by an improper distribution of their funds, or because these establishments are destined to supply the wants of a whole province.

Public poor relief is, however, only subsidiary in Vienna, i.e., it is only granted where private charity is insufficient, and in cases where there is no obligation on third parties to support the applicant.

Principles on which public relief is based.

It is, according to the existing laws, specially restricted to cases of real permanent or temporary want arising from personal circumstances, but does not extend to those cases which result from economical, political, or social causes of a general nature, and for which extraordinary measures of relief, adapted to the circumstances, and therefore indefinite, are requisite.

It is, then, only within the above limits, and in the following manner, that public poor relief is obligatory. The public authorities are bound to grant relief in the above-mentioned cases of

individual want, and can administratively be forced to comply with this obligation; on the other hand, the civil law does not give the poor a *right* either to be supported or to be assisted in any specific way.

These are the principles of the Austrian poor laws. Their details are as follows:

As already mentioned, the commune (as well as the province) is only obliged to give permanent or temporary relief in cases where, according to the civil or other laws, there is no third party bound to do so.

If such third party, either an individual or a judicial body, is able, but unwilling to perform the obligation in question, he can be forced to do so by law. The commune must meanwhile undertake the relief, reserving of course the right to recover the sum expended from the parties on whom the obligation lies (§ 23 of law defining place of birth (Heimathsgesetz) of December 3rd 1863, Imperial Law Gazette, 105). This obligation is well defined in the Austrian Civil Law.

Paragraphs, 91, 139, 141, 143, 154, 166, 167, 171, 183, and 196 of the general municipal law of June 1, 1811, contain the legal obligations of individual persons to maintain and support their poor relations, and the grounds allowed by the civil law for claims to assistance.

Obligations of this nature may also be deduced from civil contracts, for instance, from contracts relative to land, annuities, life insurances, &c., and are to be decided in accordance with the terms of the civil law.

Besides these, Austrian law holds that an injury suffered entitles to permanent or temporary assistance from the perpetrator.

In this respect everyone is authorised, by § 1295 of the general municipal law, to claim from the perpetrator reparation for the injury done him by the former's fault; and anyone who inflicts a bodily injury on another must pay the costs of his cure, the earnings he may have lost or may lose by being thus incapacitated for work, and, further, a sum of money as indemnity, to be fixed according to circumstances (§ 1325 of the general municipal law).

These obligations, in the way of assistance and indemnity, cleave, according to § 42 and 527 of the Austrian criminal law, to the property and heirs of the perpetrator of the injury.

According to other regulations and laws, for instance, those relative to servants, trades, and mines, the masters of guilds, the heads of associations, and the owners of mines, are obliged to pay, at least temporarily, the expenses during illness of their servants, journeyman, associates, and workmen.

The regulations in force relative to the assistance of trade workmen are contained in §§ 85, 94, 114d, and 124, of the accompanying trades' regulations of December 20, 1859.

With special regard to mines, § 210 of the general mining law of May 23, 1854, orders the institution of establishments for the relief of needy miners, their widows and orphans, and ordains that every proprietor of mines must maintain one of these, or, with the

Various obligations to relieve.

AUSTRIA.

assent of the mining authorities, come to an agreement with other proprietors for its maintenance.

There are also associations which guarantee assistance to their members in case of sickness or want.

Duty of the commune.

It is only when the obligation to maintain or support cannot be brought home either by personal or administrative law to an individual or a judicial body, and when the latter are unable to fulfil this obligation, that maintenance and support are incumbent on the commune. It must, however, be understood that so soon as a person is proved to be in want and to be unassisted by third parties who ought to assist him, or by private charity, the commune must at once take charge of him, reserving the right to reimbursement from the proper parties.

The pauper and charitable institutions existing in the commune itself are especially designed for the maintenance of the poor, and if the special obligations and means of these establishments do not suffice for this object, the commune has to provide a remedy (§ 22 Heimathsgesetz).

The whole management of the poor law system, the providing of means to carry out these obligations, the manner of providing for the poor, the administration of the pauper funds, devolve wholly and entirely upon representatives of the commune, elected for the purpose.

Mode in which funds are raised.

The expenses of providing for the poor of the commune are defrayed:

1. By the income derived from the fund devoted to the maintenance of the poor of the commune, and by the revenues of the local charitable foundations applicable to the purpose.

2. By donations and bequests destined for the relief of the poor.

3. By the contributions provided by law.

4. By voluntary contributions; and if these sources of income should not be sufficient, by such means as are available for other communal requirements.

The poor fund, into which these various sources of income flow, is termed "the local poor fund" (local armenfond).

The contributions provided by law, mentioned above under heading 3, consist of,—

- (a.) The share accruing to the poor out of the property of catholic lay clergymen (Sekular clerus) dying intestate.

- (b.) A tax of one per cent. upon the sum realised by the sale of all personal and real property disposed of by voluntary public auction.

- (c.) The fines and penalties (vermögenstrafen und ordnungsbüßen) adjudged by the authorities to be paid to the poor fund by virtue of the penal and other laws.

Mode in which the poor are provided for.

The manner in which the poor are provided for differs very widely in different communes according to the existence or absence of hospitals, almshouses, or ecclesiastical establishments (Pfrundenhäuser).

The einlager-sistem.

In the former case the poor and infirm are provided for in the

above-mentioned establishments, and in the latter the "Naturalverpflegung," the so called "system of billeting" (einlagersistem), frequently comes into play.

This latter system, which, however, only prevails in country, and more especially in the Alpine districts, consists in providing the poor and infirm with lodging and food at the houses of all the householders in the commune in turn, for a period of time calculated by the amount of taxes they pay. The custom has this advantage, that the pauper requires little or no pecuniary outlay, or at any rate only such as is necessary for clothing or medical attendance, and that he can be employed in such light tasks and occupations as are suited to his strength.

Although, as previously mentioned, it is only such persons as belong to the commune who can properly lay claim to support, yet the commune is not entitled to refuse the necessary aid to foreign poor and infirm in cases of immediate need, but it has the right to claim indemnification from the native commune of the person thus relieved (§ 28 and 29 of Heimathgesetz).

The poor or infirm foreigner enjoys in such case the same support as the native, and must not be sent back to his native place until his bodily health admits of his being removed.

The so called "Pfarrarmeninstitute" are to be considered as Pfarrarmen-institute. coming next in importance to the communal institution. They have existed in almost every province since the days of the Emperor Joseph and are benevolent secular public institutions for the due administration of public relief to the poor by the combined efforts of the clergy and of the laity. They differ from the "local armenfond" and from "communal poor relief institutions" in the extent of their sphere of activity and in their mode of administration. The "Pfarrarmeninstitute" do not confine their operations to one commune alone, but extend them over the whole parish (pfarrsprengel); i.e., over all the communes and parts of communes included within the parish; and the administration of the funds, &c., &c., devolve upon the clergyman, upon an overseer, chosen from among the overseers of all the communes in the parish, and upon the guardians of the poor.

The present tendency of provincial legislation, however, leans towards an union of these institutions, and, consequently, towards the abolition of the "Pfarrarmeninstitute," because some of the provincial municipalities are of opinion that the communal autonomy, created by recent legislation, requires the concentration of poor relief in the commune, and therefore the position of the "Pfarrarmeninstitute" as above described is already somewhat changed in many provinces.

The province within which the commune is situated assists in Assistance the support of its poor; and in those provinces where district representations (Bezirks vertretungen) exist the district given by provinces and by affords this aid.

In this respect § 22 of the Heimathsgesetz provides that the provincial legislature is at liberty to take measures with a view to

AUSTRIA. — lightening the obligation, imposed by law upon the communes, of providing for their poor.

Further, the laws of the various provinces declare all regulations in regard to charitable institutions, which are endowed by the province, to be matters coming within the jurisdiction of the provincial representatives, and all pauper, charitable, and sanitary establishments, endowed by the district, are specially mentioned as coming within the jurisdiction of the district representatives.

Among the charitable institutions which have a wider range of operations, are public hospitals, lying-in hospitals, foundling asylums, and female establishments.

General public hospitals must answer to the following conditions :—

1. They must be regular establishments for the treatment of the sick, and not mere poor relief institutions.

2. They must admit sick persons, whether natives or foreigners, without distinction, according to the forms and conditions hereafter specified, and bestow upon them the necessary care and medical assistance.

3. A fixed charge is to be made for the maintenance and treatment of the sick, to be calculated at the rate of so much a day, to be liquidated at stated intervals, and to be approved, in the case of State institutions, by the provincial authorities, and, in the case of provincial institutions, by the representatives of the province.

4. These institutions are bound to keep a regular, duly vouched account of income and expenditure according to prescribed forms, an inspection of which is always open to the authorities or representatives of the province.

5. They are under the supervision of the State, which supervision, in the case of State establishments, is not to be restricted to sanitary matters only, but is to extend to their management and administration.

With reference to the above-mentioned conditions and regulations concerning the admittance of sick persons into such public hospitals, the following principles are observed :

(a.) All sick persons, without distinction, are admitted into general public hospitals who are brought thereto provided with a medical certificate showing the necessity of their being treated in hospital, or who may present themselves and be pronounced fit for admittance by the hospital physician.

No sick person is to be refused admittance on account of his being unprovided with documents showing his admissibility, or ability, or inability to pay.

(b.) The introduction of a sick person into an establishment of this kind is to be accompanied, when practicable, with a document showing his admissibility, nationality, and ability to pay, or indicative of the persons, corporations, or guilds, who are legally liable for the expense of his treatment in hospital.

(c.) When a sick person is brought to the hospital or presents himself for admittance, unprovided with such a document, the

Conditions
under which
sick persons
are admitted.

establishment has itself to take measures to obtain the particulars mentioned in the foregoing paragraph.

These general public hospitals enjoy the privilege, that those expenses for the treatment of their patients, which they are entitled to charge by the rules of the foundation and by their own regulations, and which cannot be defrayed by the patients themselves, nor covered by the income derived under general or special laws and prescriptions, or from special agreements and engagements, or judicial and administrative sentences, &c., &c., or from third parties, individuals, or judicial bodies chargeable with these expenses, are made good by the native provinces of the patients.

The following are admitted into foundling establishments :—

1. Children born in lying-in hospitals of unmarried women;
2. Children who have been abandoned, if, and for as long as, their parents remain undiscovered;
3. Children of unmarried women who can show that they have been suddenly confined when on their way to a lying-in hospital.

Foundlings.

These children are placed under the care of persons residing without the establishment for six years, who are paid an annual sum for their maintenance. This sum is covered by the entrance fee, which the mother is called upon to pay on her admittance into hospital. In the case of paupers the entrance fee is paid by the treasury of the province of which the pauper is a native.

The provincial lunatic asylums, for which (as also for foundling Lunatics. institutions) the regulations are similar to those for the public hospitals, are destined for the reception of curable, incurable, and dangerous lunatics.

For incurable paupers there are also special hospitals.

The treatment of foreign paupers, to whom, as well as to Foreign paupers of other Austrian districts, the commune of their domicile paupera. has to give immediate relief, is regulated by the treaties with other powers, or by reciprocity.

With reference to the maintenance of foreign paupers in the public hospitals, the cost of the same, when it cannot be recovered from the native country of the pauper in pursuance of a treaty stipulation, or by means of diplomatic intervention, must be borne by the treasury of the province in which the establishment is situated.

Besides these public institutions and arrangements, there are in Austria numberless private establishments founded by individuals, unions, associations, and temporal and spiritual corporations, which are destined to alleviate poverty and its miseries. Their objects and organisation are, however, dependent on the rules laid down by the founders, and in this respect they are not subject to State interference.

Lastly, the education of pauper children is included in pauper Education of relief, and is, under the same conditions and restrictions as the pauper chil- latter, obligatory on the commune (§ 24, sen. 2 of the law of birth).

Pauper orphans, whether they have lost both parents or only their father, are received in orphan houses, or maintained elsewhere. Other children are treated in a similar manner in this respect, viz.

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those whose parents are in public pauper establishments, hospitals, or houses of correction, or whose domicile is unknown.

The expenses of the orphan houses are generally borne by the local pauper fund; frequently, however, charitable foundations are handed over to them, and from the revenue of these a corresponding number of orphan establishments are maintained. The children are maintained and educated there until they are able themselves to shape their future life.

The privileges enjoyed by paupers in school education must also be mentioned.

Pauper scholars are exempted from the payment of education fees in the popular (*Volks-schulen*) and military schools, at the universities, and other educational establishments of a higher class.

In the popular schools the children of pauper parents, as well as foundlings, are provided with school books gratis.

There are, further, a great number of student endowments which afford pauper students the means of continuing their studies into the highest branches of education.

Vagrants and beggars.

As regards the treatment of vagrants and beggars, they are, when found exercising their vocation, forwarded to their native communes, and may even be sent away from one or more places and prohibited from returning thither at all, or during a given period.

Their deportation, which takes place in view of maintaining public security, is, however, only to be effected when their presence would endanger the public interests of the place from which they are sent away.

Deportation is effected by means of fixed marches, or under escort (*Schub*).

Individuals of this nature may also, for aversion to labour, idleness, disreputable and dangerous conduct, or transgression of the deportation rules, be confined in houses of forced labour and correction, where they are to be retained until reformed.

Begging may also, according to the criminal law (§ 517) of Austria, be treated as a misdemeanor, when in places where pauper establishments exist, its repeated practice proves an inclination to idleness, and a disregard of past warnings, and of a first correctional punishment by the police.

The treatment of vagrants and beggars will, however, be duly regulated in accordance with the terms of the project of law (copy of which is enclosed) now before the Reichsrath, by which "police regulations will be issued against idlers and vagrants."

Result of the general system of poor relief.

The result of the Austrian system of poor relief may be said to be satisfactory.

In the country it is not perhaps all that might be desired; this is, however, excusable, as the legally determined poor relief falls very heavily on the smaller and poorer communes.

The provincial legislatures are endeavouring to lighten this burden by erecting public charitable institutions, which spread themselves like a net over the provinces; and in this respect the

execution of the idea, repeatedly expressed by the provincial legislatures, to the effect that, as regards poor relief, the present communes shall not be considered as political units, subject to relief obligations, but that several of them shall be united together and larger centres thus created, would be very advantageous.

**SUBSTANCE of §§ of TRADES REGULATIONS MENTIONED in
MEMORANDUM on POOR RELIEF.**

85.

Obliges the proprietor of an industrial undertaking to create an assistance fund or to contribute to such fund, if already existing. as to provident societies. His workmen must likewise be contributors to the fund.

94.

Obliges a master to treat a sick apprentice living in his house, according to the general laws of relief.

114 d.

Makes the foundation of assistance institutions one of the conditions in the creation of associations.

124.

Fixes the amounts of the contributions to be paid to the assistance fund by masters and men, and the influence the latter are to exercise in its administration.

**SUBSTANCE of §§ of LAW DEFINING PLACE OF BIRTH,
MENTIONED in MEMORANDUM on POOR RELIEF.**

22.

The present law does not repeal any of the existing relief regulations. Memorandum as to settlement.

If the relief necessary in the commune exceeds the means of its institutions and foundations, the commune must otherwise support its own paupers.

The provincial legislatures may take measures to relieve the communes of this obligation.

23.

This obligation is only incumbent on the commune where it does not by law fall on third parties. The latter may, in case of refusal, be forced by legal means to fulfil their obligations; meanwhile, the commune must grant relief and recover it later.

24.

Communal relief is restricted to maintenance and to assistance during sickness. In the case of children, provision must be made for their education.

In urgent cases, the commune must grant immediate relief to foreign paupers, and recover later from the proper parties.

With the latter reservation, it must also relieve foreign paupers falling ill within its limits, and maintain them until their health is restored.

REPORT ON RELIEF OF MENDICITY IN RAGUSA.

City and district of Ragusa, province of Dalmatia.

The name of the society is the "Opera Pia," or Society of Public Beneficence.

The address of the office is "Opera Pia Ragusa."

The office hours are from 9 to 1 and 4 to 7.

The committee meets irregularly, according to business on hand.

The chairman is the Bishop of Ragusa.

The names of the secretaries are Giovanni Galiuffi and Canon Coporcic.

The amount received last year was about five thousand florins paper, or something more than 400*l.* per annum, and all the income was expended; the largest amount given in one sum was 8*l.* to persons having an hereditary right to beneficence by virtue of bequests made in former years by their ancestors to this institution of public charity. The largest amount given in one sum to persons having no hereditary right, about 16*s.*

The largest amount of weekly relief given is in the middle of August, about the time of the birthday of the Emperor, when 16*l.* are distributed.

The funds for the support of the society are from old endowments; from new contributions almost nothing, because every householder who has fair means makes a distribution every Saturday of copper money to a certain number of mendicants, the proper distribution depending entirely on the servant. As the town is small, there is much relief of poverty by parties who are well acquainted with the circumstances of the needy. Much more is given in this way than through the mechanism of the "Opera Pia."

The State gives nothing directly except in case of extraordinary calamity. Under the republic of Ragusa the Opera Pia was a State institution; it is now simply local. There were formerly very large corporate funds available for charitable purposes in the republic of Ragusa, but the French confiscations and appropriations both in Italy and Ragusa completely overthrew the former state of affairs.

The Bishop of Ragusa being the president, and the canon of the cathedral controller, there are no special charitable agencies, but

the priests of the parishes give all the aid in their power, especially AUSTRIA.
in information.

There are no other district charitable agencies in the town.

The investigations into the cases of applicants are conducted by an unpaid committee. The very poor receive money from the hands of the paid secretary and controller in very minute distributions.

The nature of investigation is as to food and clothing, and the relief given is in small sums of money, in bread, and in farinaceous substances, such as macaroni and rice.

Relief is given to all classes; mendicants receive small sums of money.

Poor boys are sent to sea with an outfit of 16s., but there is no other arrangement for the promotion of the migration of labour.

No loans are granted.

The society does not occupy itself with improving the dwellings of the poor, but about 50 old houses are let by the ecclesiastical fund and by private individuals to this society at very low and securely paid rentals, and these houses are let gratis to the most needy families. Many private individuals having these old small houses prefer the small certain rent of the Opera Pia to the promise of miserable tenants who cannot pay.

The sanitary improvements are looked after by the municipality, and the promotion of provident habits and temperance are the affair of the clergy.

About 600 persons are relieved in the course of the year, and the ratio of pauperism to population is 10 per cent., the population being 6,000.

REMARKS.

The "Opera Pia" has various other functions, such as pawn broking, but the above information refers to what is within the sphere of the Committee that relieves mendicity.

A. A. PATON,
Consul.

Poor Law Relief in RUSSIA, by F. C. Ford.

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In order to give a correct idea of the measures taken for the General relief of the poor in Russia, it is necessary not only to consider marks. the character of the population, but likewise its economical condition, as compared with that of the lower classes of other countries.

In Russia there is a marked difference between the rural and urban population.

The population of the empire of Russia (in Europe) is roughly estimated at seventy-two millions.

The number of persons inhabiting towns may be set down at
C C 2

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eight and a half millions, or indeed at six millions, if one excepts those towns that have less than ten thousand inhabitants, which are in fact nothing but large villages dignified, for administrative purposes, by the name "towns."

A very large proportion of the population in the cities (in St. Petersburg and Moscow from 25 to 30 per cent.) have only a temporary domicile in them. It consists of peasants who have migrated from the country, and who, having left their families there, repair to the towns in order to seek employment.

Absolute pauperism amongst the rural population of Russia, is to a certain extent, obviated by the following reasons :

Scantiness of population.

1. The ease with which work can be obtained in a country where the population is so small, as compared with the extent of its area, being only at the rate of 10 to the square mile. (In England it is 347 to the square mile.)

Uncultivated Crown lands.

2. The large quantity of uncultivated Crown lands available for colonization.

It is argued by a certain political party in Russia that the communal system prevailing in the country, under which forty-two millions of the population have, to a great extent, been made compulsory leaseholders under communes, is likewise calculated to prevent the existence of a proletariat class, but since it is now an almost recognised fact that the fiscal burdens on land are, in a large part of Russia, more than equivalent to the money value of its produce, it is difficult to conceive how such a system of land tenure can be calculated to raise the peasantry from a state of need.

It is admitted that the peasantry, under communes, are only enabled to keep body and soul together by means of extraneous work found in towns after the termination of their agricultural labours, or in working for large landed proprietors.

Nevertheless, the Russian peasant requires so little, that cases of absolute pauperism are seldom met with in the country districts.

Land tenure.

In all those places where the land is portioned out into communal lots each member of the commune has an equal right to his share in it.

Each individual belongs to a family, or more properly speaking to a house, which constitutes the communistic unit, possessing in common not only the real property, but likewise the cattle and moveable property.

Even if the individual be only a distant relative of the family or be adopted as a member of it, he brings with him his individual share of the parcel of land for the benefit of the family, and in return enjoys the right of being supported by it.

Thus absolute pauperism (taken in a western sense of the word), or want of food, is rarely met with.

Low standard of comfort.

The actual state of prosperity, however, of the Russian peasantry, is still very low. The majority of them save nothing; they live from day to day supplying the wants of their families, and endeavouring to pay the heavy taxes imposed upon them by the produce of their allotments of land, which, in the majority of cases, as already stated, are insufficient for the purpose.

They generally manage to eke out a bare subsistence when the harvest is good, but when that fails, they are thrown into a state of distress, which is still further aggravated by want of work for the able-bodied men.

Under such circumstances, the younger men of the villages are sent off to distances in order to find work, and a few become beggars on the high road, and appeal to the charity of the more fortunate inhabitants of villages, where the crops may not have suffered.

The Russian peasant is kind-hearted, and ready to give with an open hand to his distressed brethren, nor is he unmindful of the fact that the charity he bestows on such occasions, it may some day be his lot to solicit for himself.

Such are the main features of the state of poverty generally met with amongst the rural population in Russia, and which is usually caused by some unforeseen calamity, such as a bad harvest, fire, or other disastrous causes.

It must be recorded, however, that the inhabitants of some Government villages are sometimes thrown into a state of considerable destitution, owing to their becoming over-populated. In such cases, the Government steps forward, and by offering uncultivated Crown lands for colonization, relieves the plethora, and restores the village to a normal condition.

It is well known that, previous to the emancipation of the serfs, the landlord was bound to feed and look after the well-being of his serfs.

Moreover, since the year 1775 up to the year 1864, there existed in every chief town of each province an institution, under Government patronage, for the special relief of the poor. It had its president and three representatives from the following classes : the nobility, the townsmen, and the villagers. Sometimes a special member was nominated by the Government.

The history of these institutions is of interest. Their original funded capital was supplied by donations and legacies made by private individuals, and by contributions from the Government.

With a view to increasing the pecuniary resources of these institutions, the Government accorded them the privilege of employing their capital in various ways, and as at that period no banks existed in Russia, they amassed (in spite of many abuses committed by persons in handling it) a great deal of money.

Thus it was possible to establish orphan asylums, hospitals, almshouses, madhouses, prisons, and other useful and charitable institutions. Most of them were erected in the provincial towns, for, curiously enough, the Russian peasant revolted against availing himself of the proceeds of public charity, preferring to live and die under any circumstances in his natal spot.

The establishments so formed, however, were in no lack of occupants. The townspeople availed themselves of them ; also discharged soldiers (enjoying very limited pensions), who, according to the Russian law then prevailing, lost, after 25 years of service, their right to a share in the communal land of their villages.

measures to relieve over-population.

Duties of landlords prior to the emancipation of serfs.

System for the relief of the poor prior to 1864.

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—
System introduced in 1864.

Zemstvos or local representative assemblies.

In 1864 a new system of government was inaugurated in Russia, that of decentralization became the order of the day, and self-government by the different provinces composing the empire with regard to matters of local interest.

"Zemstvos," that is to say, local representative assemblies, composed of members being landed proprietors and the holders of land under the communal institutions of the country, were appointed. It was then that the funded capital and the establishments that had belonged to the institutions above described were made over to the "zemstvos," under the express condition that they should provide for the general welfare of the population of their respective districts.

Power was likewise accorded to the "zemstvos" to levy various taxes on the population and on the landowners of the districts.

It would be difficult to state precisely what the result has been of the new system, or to enumerate the benefits that have been derived by handing over to the "zemstvos" the charge of the poor of the country.

Suffice it to say, that the different zemstvos throughout Russia act quite independently one of the other, and consult only the best means of meeting local exigencies.

Within the last few years, thanks to that great social reform, the emancipation of the serfs, the general prosperity of the country is believed to have increased.

Important changes have likewise taken place in the Russian military system. Invalided and discharged soldiers are less a charge upon public charity than they formerly were. Their term of service has not only been curtailed, but they no longer forfeit their communal rights in their villages.

Thus the labours of the "zemstvos" have been lightened. They have established throughout Russia every description of useful and charitable institution, and they find themselves in a position of offering such facilities for the relief of the poor as happily exceeds the demand.

With regard to mendicity amongst the urban population of Russia, it must be repeated that a characteristic feature of the large towns of Russia, and the remark applies particularly to St. Petersburg, consists in the fact that a small proportion only of their inhabitants have a fixed residence in them.

The peasants flock to the towns in search of temporary employment, leaving their families in the country, but rejoining them after a few months residence in the towns.

Certainly one half of the population of St. Petersburg is recruited from the adjoining provinces, the amount of the floating population being principally determined by the state of the labour market.

When the harvest is bad and provisions scarce in the provinces, the peasants flock to St. Petersburg, and so great is the demand for hands that employment is generally found for them all.

'The insalubrious climate of St. Petersburg, however, seriously

Mendicity among the urban population and its causes.

affects the health of these country people, who consequently die in considerable numbers.

Widows, also, infant children of soldiers, and subordinate employés further add to the list of poor, which is again augmented by that class of confirmed beggars, found in every country, who embrace mendicity as a lucrative source of living.

All these elements of pauperism, however, are not great when compared to the large population of the city, nor are they difficult to control, thanks to the three different classes of institutions about to be described, that are established in St. Petersburg for the purpose of relieving its poor.

The first class of charitable institution, which is entirely under the Government, consists of a committee formed for the classification and relief of beggars.

This institution has an honorary president, a vice-president, and members named and appointed by the Government, also other members attached to it. These last are selected from among persons belonging to different kinds of professions, and who have distinguished themselves by their gifts and good works in the cause of public charity.

The funded capital of this institution amounts to 102,000 roubles (14,000£), and was originally given by the Government.

The revenue of the institution is derived from the following sources, viz., the interest of the capital, subsidies given by the Government and municipality, and sums bestowed by the members.

The total amount of receipts in 1870 was 41,000 roubles (5,500£), of which 13,000 roubles (1,700£) was given by the members.

The total amount expended that year was 32,000 roubles (4,250£).

The duties of the committee of this institution consist in looking after the persons charged by the police with begging and vagrancy.

The number of such persons averaged during the last four years from 2,800 to 3,700 annually.

The committee classifies the beggars into three categories, viz.:—

1. Those incapacitated by bodily infirmity from working.
2. Those who through circumstances over which they exercised no control may have fallen into distress but are still capable of working.
3. Those who through idleness and bad habits have taken to mendicity as a profession.
4. Those who recently arrived from the provinces have temporarily failed to find employment.

The committee lodge temporarily beggars of the first category in their institutions, and later establish them in the almshouses which exist in St. Petersburg. Persons coming under the second and fourth category are sent back to their native places, frequently at the cost of the committee, or else are recommended for some

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sort of employment in St. Petersburg. Persons of the third category are sent to justices of the peace.

Since the year 1870 the committee has founded in its establishment an industrial school for youthful criminals.

Grand Imperial Philanthropic Society. The second class of charitable institutions consists of the "Grand Imperial Philanthropic Society."

This society, which has been formed since the year 1818, has a mixed character, that is to say, it is partially under Government control.

It is placed under the direction of the Metropolitan of St. Petersburg. The vice-president and secretary are appointed by the Government; its members of council, 12 in number, are selected from amongst the high dignitaries of the empire, and the number of persons taking a part in the working of this institution amounts to one thousand.

Its work. The action of this society is not limited to St. Petersburg. It possesses branch charitable institutions at Moscow and in three provincial towns. It has formed altogether 19 schools, 15 almshouses, and 13 charitable committees who distribute medicines to the poor.

Its institutions. In 1870 the funded capital of this society amounted to 2,500,000 roubles (333,000*l.*), and the real estate owned by it was valued at 3,300,000 roubles (440,000*l.*)

The schools of the society include 1,872 children, and cost yearly a sum of 191,000 roubles (26,000*l.*)

The almshouses contain 1,470 poor people, and cost yearly 115,000 roubles (15,000*l.*)

The charitable committees distribute yearly medicines to the amount of 50,000 roubles (6,650*l.*)

Branch committees. Committees for the relief of the poor, one of which sits at St. Petersburg, are formed in seven towns. That at St. Petersburg distributes annually from 16 to 38,000 roubles (2,000*l.* to 5,000*l.*), the one at Moscow from 1,800 to 3,000 roubles (240*l.* to 400*l.*), the one at Vorongé from 140 to 1,560 roubles (18*l.* to 200*l.*), the one at Kostroma from 85 to 1,120 roubles (11*l.* to 150*l.*), and the one at Odessa from 200 to 480 roubles (26*l.* to 63*l.*)

Revenues. The total revenue of the society in the year 1869 amounted to 703,000 roubles (92,500*l.*), and the expenditure to 553,000 roubles (67,000*l.*) Its capital has been augmented during the last four years by 415,000 roubles (55,200*l.*)

Voluntary charitable societies. The third class of charitable institutions consists of philanthropic societies which are entirely free, and have been established within the last few years in various parishes of St. Petersburg.

The formation of these charitable institutions by voluntary individual exertion has proved a great boon to the poor.

The committees of relief of the "Grand Society" could not meet all the cases brought to its notice. Moreover the almshouses established in St. Petersburg for the reception of the poor are so crowded that candidates are often obliged to wait several years before they can obtain admission into them.

As a rule the paupers of St. Petersburgh belong to the class of persons who are either too old or too disabled to be able to work.

The able-bodied find no difficulty in procuring work; hence the number of male paupers amongst that class is very limited, and able-bodied pauper females find employment in the existing charitable institutions.

The old and disabled pauper females, however, and widows with young children find great difficulty in acquiring the means of subsistence, and must be relieved at their homes.

The following sketch of the working of one of these parochial charitable institutions may be of interest.

Let us select the parish of St. Andrew, situated on the Vassili Ostroff.

The population of that parish consists of 30,000 souls, men, women, and children. The society affords relief to all the destitute inhabitants of the parish irrespectively of their religious denominations or their nationality.

The society is formed of all the inhabitants of the parish who are willing to take a part in the charitable business.

The working committee of the society is composed of a president and 12 members, who are at the same time the guardians of the poor in each of their own circumscriptions, for, it should be remarked, the parish is subdivided into different districts.

The nomination of president and of the guardians is by election. The priests of the Church of St. Andrew act as guardians *ex officio*.

When the society was instituted its first labours consisted in making itself acquainted with each individual and family living in the parish, and in establishing a system for the collection of subscriptions. Funds were raised by voluntary subscription and by collections made in the church. The society now contemplates addressing itself once a year regularly to every householder in the parish to support the institution.

The means of the society have hitherto been found adequate for the work in hand.

During the three years that the society has existed its capital has amounted to 5,000 roubles (665*l.*), and it has collected each year the sum of 6,000 roubles (800*l.*)

The society has founded an asylum capable of holding 30 poor decrepit women, and makes monthly allowances to 140 individuals or families.

The general character of the relief afforded takes the following forms, viz., a place in the asylum, monthly allowance according to the individual case or number of the family, payments for the schooling of the children of poor people, the distribution of clothes, the gift of firewood, &c.

The system on which the society works is simple enough.

The parish is divided into districts. Each district has its guardian. Every poor person can write his name in a book kept for the purpose in the church. The guardian then pays a domiciliary visit to the applicant and the necessary investigation before affording relief is proceeded with.

Illustration of
the work of the
parochial com-
mittee of one
parish.

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No poor person is allowed to receive permanent relief unless he has a fixed domicile in the parish for at least one year.

This rule is indispensable, otherwise paupers belonging to neighbouring parishes where charitable parochial societies have not as yet been established would flood to the one where charity was dispensed.

The results attending the action of these parochial charitable societies are admirable.

In a couple of years in the parish of St. Andrew every single pauper and his mode of living was personally known to the respective guardians of the different districts, who exercise a judicious discrimination in the manner and amount of relief for each individual case.

In fact the guardian is the organ of communication between the almsgiver and the recipient, and as only deserving persons are relieved the demoralizing effect so frequently produced on the paupers themselves where an indiscriminate system of charity prevails, as is the case in many European cities, is obviated.

Annexed to this report will be found despatches from Her Majesty's Consuls at Helsingfors (Finland), Revel, Riga, Moscow, and Odessa relative to the treatment of the poor in each of their respective consular districts.

FRANCIS CLARE FORD.

British Embassy, St. Petersburg,
20 March 1872.

**REPORT on the RELIEF of the POOR in MOSCOW,
by F. P. ROBERTS.**

Relief of the
poor in Russia
before Catherine II.

Establishment
of offices of
public charity.

Their opera-
tion.

UNTIL the reign of the Empress Catherine II. the poor, the houseless, the destitute, and orphans were taken care of by the monasteries and convents which owned extensive landed property. During that reign, however, these lands were taken over by the Imperial Government, and there was established in each province an office of public charity (*Prykaz Obshestvennago Pryzrenya*). These offices were endowed by the Government with sums of money, besides which they had allowed to them other sources of revenue, viz., donations from the Government and from the municipalities of towns, donations and legacies from private individuals, fines and penalties levied by the Government and the courts of law, the proceeds of the sale of playing cards, &c.

The offices of public charity have the charge of orphan asylums, foundling hospitals, hospitals, lunatic asylums, and houses of industry, and they thus minister not only to the physical but also the moral wants of the population. Workhouses are also under the care of these offices, but to these a person can only be sent in the event of his being guilty of a misdemeanor, and then only on the order of a magistrate.

The offices of public charity are presided over by the governor of the province, and the other officers are appointed by him, subject, however, to Imperial confirmation.

All classes of the population, except peasants, are admitted into the establishments of which the offices in question have charge. Peasants are sent to their commune in the event of their becoming destitute, to be there taken charge of, and as no provisions for supporting the poor exist in the villages, a family of peasants generally takes charge of the pauper.

There are many charitable societies and institutions in Russia for providing for the indigent. These are all under the supervision of the Minister of the Interior. The principal of them is the Imperial Philanthropical Society, which has committees for the relief of the poor and different educational establishments in the two capitals and some of the provinces. This society's business is directed by a council having its office in St. Petersburg.

Besides this certain classes or nationalities of the population of the empire have their own special charitable institutions, as, for example, the priests, colonists, the people from the Baltic provinces, Circassians, Siberians, &c.

In Moscow there are several charitable and educational establishments for the poor founded by private benevolence, such as the Cheremeteff Hospital and Asylum for the Aged, the Kourakine House of Refuge, and others.

With regard to the support of poor relatives, the law obliges a husband to support his wife, parents to support their children under age, and children to support their destitute parents.

No taxes or contributions are levied for the support of the poor as exist in England, and no statistics are obtainable as to the total amount expended in Moscow for the relief of the poor, nor yet as to the proportion of persons relieved to the population.

In each provincial and district town there is a town hospital, which is under the supervision of the local office of public charity. Into these hospitals are received the sick poor of all classes, but the cost of their maintenance is afterwards claimed from the community or class to which they belong. For example, although special hospitals exist for soldiers and for the priesthood, still if a member of either of these classes is brought to the town hospital he is admitted, but the cost of his keep and medicines is afterwards claimed from the military or ecclesiastical authorities respectively. The town hospitals, besides this, dispense medicines gratuitously to the poor.

Begging is forbidden by the law, and beggars are prosecuted and punished by being sent to their own communes or to the workhouse; but notwithstanding this the streets of Moscow are infested with beggars, many of them professional ones. The police not being very vigilant, and the Russians, especially the old merchant class, being very much addicted to giving money to beggars, these make a good living out of begging.

The place of birth or domicile of a pauper is not bound to refund any relief which may have been granted to him in any other place; it only pays for him should he have been in hospital.

Foreigners residing in Russia who are destitute are relieved just the same as natives, and are not sent out of the country, paupers.

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except for crimes. In the capitals where, of course, foreigners are most numerous, they have founded their own benevolent institutions. Thus, in Moscow, the German community have an almshouse, a school for the children of poor people and orphans, and also a society for defraying the expenses of the funerals of the poor. The French and Swiss communities have each a society for affording relief to the poor of those nations.

The office of public charity gives no relief to individuals direct; it only supports hospitals and similar institutions.

The Imperial Philanthropic Society.

The Imperial Philanthropic Society, which is the most important institution for affording relief to the poor in the empire, was founded in 1818, and derives its means from donations and from extensive immovable property and funds in its possession. Of landed and house property it possessed at the end of 1869 to the amount of Rs. 3,295,575, bringing in a revenue of Rs. 77,921, and of funded property for Rs. 2,443,460.

The Moscow Committee.

The Moscow Committee of the Philanthropic Society was founded in 1818, and has in its charge seven poor or almshouses, viz., five in the city and two in the districts around. These contained on the 1st of January 1870, 941 aged and infirm persons, and during the year then ended their maintenance cost Rs. 64,173, the income of these establishments during the same year being Rs. 65,842. This income was derived from interest on capital belonging to the different establishments and revenue from real property, besides donations from private individuals.

System of relief.

During the year 1869 the Moscow Committee and the two societies under its supervision granted relief as medical assistance, donations of money, lodging and work, and gratuitous dinners to 24,767 people, at an expense of Rs. 117,965, the income during the same period being Rs. 187,860, derived from rent of property, donations of the Imperial family and private individuals, and interest on capital.

The system of relief by the Moscow Committee is the following: The committee has 17 district inspectors, viz., one in each police district of the city. The poor requiring relief present a petition to the committee, which then sends the petition to the inspector of the district where the petitioner resides, and the inspector after inquiring into the merits of the case reports on it, and the committee then grants aid, either by a donation from Rs. 3 upwards, or by a regular monthly or quarterly payment, or by admitting the petitioner into one of the asylums or almshouses.

Inadequacy of the present system.

Notwithstanding the existence of these establishments, the means for the relief of the poor are perfectly inadequate to cope with the amount of poverty. The number of candidates seeking admission into the different charitable institutions is enormous, so much so that the committee has to relieve only the most distressing cases of poverty and infirmity.

In general the system of relief to the poor in Moscow, although there is great room for improvement, is found in practice to be so far good that the offices of public charity and other charitable institutions draw their means from sources which do not in any

way inconvenience or oppress the population by taxes or rates. At the same time, as the relief is generally given in kind and not in money, it is hardly likely to increase the pauperism and indolence of the population, and the system therefore cannot have any ill effects on the conduct, character, and condition of the inhabitants.

FRANK P. ROBERTS,
H.B.M.'s Vice-Consul.

REPORT on the RELIEF of the POOR in ODESSA,
by K. E. ABBOT.

Question 1. Legal Provision for the Poor.—There is no provision in this part of Russia for the poor, established by law, nor in any other part of the empire that I can hear of. No legal provision for the poor.

The only charitable organization in this place consists of the following limited establishments or charities:—

1st. *The Hospice of Odessa* in the Great Cemetery, under the management of the municipality, for the blind, insane, and cripples, and paralytic, epileptic, and decrepit persons. In 1870, 231 were provided for daily on the average, at the expense of Roubles 13,356.

2nd. *The House of Orphans of Odessa*, under the care of the municipality. About 190 persons were admitted in 1870 who are made to attend schools. The expenditure for that year was Roubles 24,823½.

3rd. *An Establishment for Abandoned Children*, also under the care of the municipality. 97 of both sexes were taken charge of in 1870, at an expense of Roubles 1,830.

Private Charities.—*The Hospice Alexandrovsky*, which admits 135 boys and girls during the day, and shelters 70 at night.

The Hospice Marinski, where 97 children are received during the day, and 10 sheltered at night.

The Hospice Cesarwna, where 73 children are received during the day.

The above three establishments are maintained by private contributions and the income derived from property belonging to them.

The Société de Bienfaisance des Dames, founded by Her Highness Princess Elizabeth Woronzow, who is the munificent supporter of it, having given for the maintenance of the asylum and school 110,000 roubles in five per cent. Russian paper. The asylum is for 125 boys, and the school for the instruction of 200 scholars; of the former number 25 are orphan or destitute children constantly maintained in the establishment. The remainder are received and taken care of by the society on the payment of a yearly sum of 80 roubles (half in advance) for each boy by any charitable party sending him.

Russia. — The revenue of the society for general purposes amounted in 1870 to Roubles 15,581·28; thus,—

	Roubles.
Balance from 1869	164·81
Annual payments by lady members	1,166
Occasional gifts	3,757
Paid for admissions	796
Rent of houses and shops belonging to the society	6,105·12
Per-centages for mortgages on property	2,149·98
Per-cent-age on Government paper	942·75
Compounding for holiday visits	274·50
Debts abandoned in favour of orphans	75·32
Sale of high grass on the ground of the society	32
Sums owing, recovered	117·55

The committee of the society is established with separate functions for the casual relief of the distressed, and is composed of the lady patroness (the Dowager Princess Woronzow) and several other ladies. They collect subscriptions, and out of the sums so raised distribute bread, fuel, warm clothing, and pecuniary aid; assist distressed strangers (Russians) to return to their native places; and provide work by which poor people may support themselves, and by which Roubles 2,020·99 were earned in 1870. In that year 150 families, consisting of 469 persons of both sexes, received assistance from the committee, who distributed—

	Roubles.
750 pounds of bread, costing	876·42
Fuel to the value of	838·90
Warm clothing	203·26
Aid in money (fixed allowance)	312
" (temporary, &c.)	203
Expense paid for orphans under charge of nurses	870
Management of the establishment for hand work	240
For the support of the hospice for old women	150
For the poor in the parish of St. Michael	150
Needlework performed by the poor	2,080·99
Small expenses	30·25
For the charge of an idiot	48
<hr/>	
	5,998·22

The Asile des Vieilles Infirmes, founded in 1867, provided lodging for 24 aged persons. Funds, however, are wanting for the further maintenance of this establishment, which is partly supported by the Société de Bienfaisance, as above shown.

In connection with the scheme of the society, a Mr. Djevetsky conceived last winter the idea of establishing in three distant quarters of the town soup kitchens, where soup with meat and bread are given under the direction of the society at a charge of 5 kopeks

per portion. The attempt succeeded admirably, and will be continued this winter. Last winter 12,336 portions were distributed at the three kitchens.

Question 2.—There is no tax, and contributions are raised by personal application or voluntary offerings.

Question 3.—The municipality of course administer the funds they devote to charitable purposes; and the private charities of the Société de Bienfaisance are conducted by a committee of ladies who take it upon themselves.

Question 4.—The amount of private charities, as administered by the various hospices and by the Société de Bienfaisance, has already been stated in answer to query 1, with the number of persons relieved. The other particulars required are unattainable.

Question 5. Hospitals, &c.—*The Town Hospital*, founded in 1798, containing 960 beds in 70 wards (of which 100 beds are devoted to patients with chronic diseases) and a surgical school for the instruction of 20 youths. It has attached to it a head physician and 18 others.

In this establishment the poor inhabitants of the place, poor employés in government offices, retired sick soldiers, in cases where they possess no landed property, are admitted free on a certificate of their poverty; otherwise the hospital charge is $7\frac{1}{2}$ roubles per month on ordinary fare. Retired employés and poor people who cannot conveniently enter the hospital receive medicine gratis. Insane persons of poor condition are admitted gratis, and others for a very moderate charge.

The Hebrew Hospital has 132 beds, and a ward of 18 beds for aged paupers. About 1,000 medical prescriptions are given away yearly, gratis. The establishment is maintained by the Jew community and is for Jews only.

The Stourdza Asylum of Sisters of Charity, founded in 1850. The object being the education of the sisters to fit them to look after the sick in a hospital attached to the establishment, in which there are 37 beds for sick females, admitted on payment of 8 roubles a month. Insane persons and those attacked by contagious diseases are not received. The poor admitted gratis.

Question 6.—The law respecting vagrancy and begging is very imperfectly enforced, and generally speaking only when the attention of the police is particularly directed to any individual case. Beggars are, or should be, punished by short imprisonment.

Question 7.—Vagrants in poverty, and when strangers and without passports, may be sent back to their respective countries at the charge of the State.

Question 8.—Foreign paupers, if provided with the necessary Foreign passports, would not be interfered with if they did not offend against the laws; they may remain or go as best suits them; but would obtain no relief from the authorities, nor would they be sent back to their own country. They might obtain, like others, relief from the Société de Bienfaisance. The French, Italian, German,

RUSSIA.

and Greek communities have each a society of this kind for rendering assistance to their respective fellow countrymen in distress.

Question 9.—There is nothing to state under this head.

KEITH EDWD. ABBOTT,
H.M.S. Consul-General.

Odessa, December 9th, 1871.

REPORT on the RELIEF of the POOR in the BALTIC PROVINCES, by J. GRIGURN.

No general law for urban parishes.

There are no general laws whatever in the Baltic Provinces relating to the government of the poor in the urban parishes.

The inhabitants of a town are allowed to frame rules for their own guidance.

The ordinances under which the rural parishes are governed are very concise and simple, and are as follows:

Duties of rural parishes.

It is the duty of every parish to support its orphans, foundlings, and children of tender age and unfit for employment, as well as all parishioners who are unable to support themselves on account of old age or sickness, as also those who have no relations of any kind, or who, if they exist, are not in a condition to render assistance. Such persons must, however, be natives of the parish or have resided in it for a period of 15 years. The parish is likewise responsible that medical attendance is given to poor sick members. Finally, the parish is bound to support all insane persons belonging to it out of its own funds, and to afford them all necessary protection. Should, however, a greater number of insane persons be thrown upon the parish than it is in its power to support it has a right to apply, through the parish court, for an order from the governor of the province that they shall be received into an institution for the assistance of the poor, with or without payment, as the case may be. To the poor wives of recruits and their minor children the parish is bound to allow, in addition to free lodging and fuel, at least 20 quarts of rye or oatmeal monthly for the wife and half that amount for each child. The parish police is also bound to take care that the children of recruits receive free lessons in the parish school, and that the persons charged to look after the interests of the mother shall be proper persons.

Their administration.

A nominal list is to be made out by the parish police each year of all poor and sick persons requiring aid, fixing, according to circumstances, the amount of allowance for each person in need. This statement is to be laid before the parish committee for preliminary inspection and approval. Should any change be made in the amount of assistance proposed, such change must receive the especial approval of the committee.

All members of the parish able to work who have repeatedly come on the parish for support, as well as those who have not fulfilled their parish duties during two years, are placed under the special surveillance of the district police.

It is the duty of that police to bring these persons before the parish court, which will sentence them to work out their debt by a period of service on public works, either in or out of the parish.

To cover the charges to which a parish is liable it can have Funds. recourse:

To the poor funds of the parish where such funds exist:

To the income arising from the produce of land rented or bought by the parish for the use of the poor:

To voluntary gifts:

To the interest paid on advances made out of the stock magazines. Stock grain All persons receiving loans from the magazines of grain which ^{magazines} exist in each parish pay interest, never more than six per cent., on the value of such loans:

To general collections to be made in each parish every year on the Sunday before Michaelmas Day, by persons specially authorised for that purpose by the parish committee:

To monies allowed for that purpose out of the general parish funds.

Should these funds not suffice, the parish court may lay on an Extraordinary extraordinary tax, distributed among farmers according to their ^{tax.} rent, and farm servants according to their wages.

The sum to be levied must, however, be fixed by the parish at a parish meeting, and must be approved of by the district police.

The parish committee controls all parish capital and other parish property. This committee fixes the amount of the contributions to cover the parish expenditure, and decides the manner in which the necessary sum shall be raised.

A manager of the poor called a "parish warden" is chosen annually by the parish, subject to the approval of the district police, who, in conjunction with the parish court, have under their care the distribution of all money. Parish wardens.

The managers of the poor or the parish court must account quarterly to the district police for all receipts and expenditures. Should the members of a parish court resign, they must give an account to the whole parish of the distribution of the poor money.

When a parishioner becomes distressed in consequence of his own neglect or laziness, the parish committee has a right to place him, by agreement, with a farmer, with whom he may work to support himself. Paupers may be set to work.

The foregoing remarks contain the substance of all the laws which exist in these provinces for the government of the rural parishes with reference to their poor, sick, and insane members.

As to the manner in which they are carried out, I cannot pretend to give the slightest information.

These matters never, by any chance, become the subject of newspaper discussion, and there exists no middle class in rural parishes, holding a position between proprietor and peasant, which interests itself in such matters.

There are no statistical returns to be found giving the proportion of persons receiving relief to the population of the provinces.

BUREA.

Poor law administration in
the town of
Riga

The urban parishes, as before stated, exist under laws framed by their members for their own government.

In the town of Riga a tax is laid annually by the alderman charged with that duty on owners of property within the city limits, and also on burghers of the city not holding landed estate, each one being assessed according to his means, real or supposed. The tax thus raised is supplemented by gifts from the general city funds and by voluntary contributions, and the funds thus supplied prove amply sufficient for the support of the city poor. Officers are chosen from time to time for the supervision and government of the poor.

None of these officers are paid.

I am informed that a similar system exists in all towns of any consideration within the provinces of Livonia and Courland.

The officers referred to are appointed for each district into which the town is divided, and their numbers are calculated upon the number of poor to be relieved in the district.

The officers are supplied monthly with sums of money for distribution to the regular pensioners of their respective districts. They are, at the same time, empowered to administer relief in all cases of necessity, reporting the fact to the central committee. The ministers of the several churches also bring to the notice of the committee all cases of destitution arising within their several districts. The amount given to a destitute person ranges from 3 k. to 9 k. monthly, according to circumstances, and fuel is also given during the winter months. I do not find that any other relief is given in kind.

Refractory paupers, those able but unwilling to work, are sent to an institution where they are compelled to labour on the public account.

This institution is not yet self-supporting.

All deficiencies are made up out of the general city funds.

Through the kindness of a gentleman of this city I am enabled to append a statement, not yet published, of the public charitable institutions existing at Riga and in the different towns of the province of Livonia in the year 1870. This statement is not complete. A similar statement is appended for the province of Courland. It is for the year 1862, and the latest published.

Definite an-
swers to queries.

1. What is the nature of the legal provision for the support of the poor, and to what extent is that provision supplemented by charitable organization, and what is the legal obligation imposed upon persons to maintain their poor relatives?

2. What are the principles upon which such provision is founded, and what is the mode in which any tax or contribution for that purpose is levied?

This question and the succeeding one are fully answered in the general report and its appendices.

3. What body or class of persons administer the funds raised for the maintenance and support of the poor, and in what manner is the body or persons charged with that duly elected or appointed?

In rural parishes, which alone are governed by a general law, an officer called a "Gemeinde Heilester," "parish warden or elder," is elected annually by the farmers and peasants. In the city of Riga all matters connected with the poor are under the supervision of an alderman. His term of service is not limited. The same system exists in other provincial towns.

4. What is the annual amount of the funds raised and expended and the number of paupers relieved, distinguishing, as far as practicable, the able-bodied from the aged and infirm, and from children; and showing also the proportion of paupers numerically to population?

All statistics on these subjects are absolutely wanting for country parishes. The number of persons relieved in Riga in 1871 was 4,051, making in all about four per cent. of the population.

The precise amount of money expended I have not been able to ascertain.

5. What is the extent to which hospitals, houses of industry, or almshouses are provided for all or every class of the poor; and the principles which are adopted in determining whether poor persons shall be required to come into such establishments, or be relieved at their own houses?

Certain landed proprietors within these provinces have, I understand, erected poorhouses on their estates, but I cannot ascertain any particulars relative to them.

In the towns there are establishments erected both by public and private charity. In the province of Livonia there are no less than 71 establishments public and private, in Courland 27. As a rule no pauper is admitted into any of these establishments who is not absolutely incapable of contributing in any way towards his own maintenance.

Both vagrancy and mendicity are strictly forbidden by law.

As each person must be provided with a passport, which must be renewed annually in the place where it was originally given, and as this passport may be demanded at any moment by a member of the rural or city police, there is little difficulty under the heads of vagrancy and mendicity, when there is a disposition to carry out the law.

7. What principle is adopted in determining the chargeability of individual paupers, that is to say, are they relieved at the cost of the locality where they become destitute, or are their places of birth or domicile liable to repay the charge?

8. In what manner are paupers, who are foreigners, treated? Are they allowed to remain in the country where they become destitute, or are they sent back to their own countries?

9. What is the practical working and effect of the actual system of relief upon the comfort, character, and condition of the inhabitants?

Paupers may, of course, be sent to the parishes to which they belong, but as a rule this system is not resorted to. The amount expended for their maintenance is charged to the parishes to which they belong, and is generally repaid.

As a rule they are sent back to their own countries.

It is quite impossible for any foreigner to pretend to give an opinion on these points.

It is a matter of mere accident if any such subject is ever discussed or even spoken of in his presence. No mention of such things is encouraged in the newspapers, and there are no public meetings for the purpose of ventilating such matters. A despotic government has made the laws, and a despotic police enforces them, if it sees fit to do so.

JAMES GRIGURN,
H.M.'s Consul, Riga.

REPORT on the RELIEF of the POOR in the GRAND DUCHY OF FINLAND, by W. CAMPBELL.

Right to relief.

1. According to the statutes of the grand duchy of Finland every person who is unable to obtain a livelihood is entitled to support from the district to which he belongs. The sums raised for this purpose are but rarely increased by voluntary contributions, except in towns where such charities are not unfrequently established in aid of the poor. Relatives in a direct line are bound to maintain their paupers provided they are in a position to do so.

Funds.

2. The rates for the necessary relief of the poor are fixed and levied according to emergencies through a certain per-cent-age on the revenue of every kind of real property and manufacturing establishments in town and country of any description and nature whatsoever, and, further, personally upon every Finnish subject, viz., the public officers and officials, in proportion to the salaries,

pensions, &c. which they enjoy ; upon traders of every description, in proportion to their assumed income ; and, lastly, upon other members of the community to an amount fixed for the current year by the poor law administration.

The grounds for the assessment vary considerably in the different communities.

3. The administration of relief to the poor is in each community Administration. or poor district vested in a direction elected by the community, and subject to an annual re-election of one-third of its members.

4. The amount annually raised for the support of the poor in Expenditure. three of the eight provinces of Finland, viz., in Nyland, Kuopio, and Uleaborg, is F.M. 846,802, or about 33,866*l.* sterling, the population of these provinces being 578,802 persons.

No return is given of the amounts collected in the other provinces.

The proportion of poor to the entire population of the grand duchy is as follows :—

Males, 4·56 per cent.	}	Average, 4·94.
Females, 5·31 "		

Number of paupers relieved.

And thus divided :—

Children under 15 years	-	-	3,018
Illegitimate children under 15 years	-	-	31,485
Paupers in poorhouses	-	-	15,215
Out-of-door supported poor	-	-	39,044
Poor in workhouses and prisons	-	-	237
Poor in hospitals	-	-	106
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			89,105
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5. Under ordinary circumstances no hospitals exist which are Hospitals, established or supported by the communities, but at the appearance workhouses, of any epidemic disease temporary localities are fitted up and and poor farms. maintained at the expense of the community.

The communities are bound to erect and maintain permanent workhouses within their districts, but such are nowhere to be found, and in consequence thereof out-door relief is given to the poor.

In some of the towns of Finland poorhouses are established for the relief of *old* and *impotent* paupers, other paupers, as well as orphans, being sent to the so-called poor-farms.

6. Vagrants and beggars are arrested by the police and delivered Vagrants and over to the poor law administration if they belong to the district in beggars. which they are apprehended.

Should they, however, belong to another district they are sent there at the expense of the community of that district.

7. The poor are considered to belong to that community in Settlement. which the latest entries of them have been made in the church and rate books, and they are to be maintained by that community irrespectively of the locality where they have become impoverished.

Foreign
panpers.
Results.

8. Destitute foreigners are in every case sent to their respective native countries.

9. There is no doubt but the present system affords an opportunity to a great number of persons who are not in actual want of aid to share the relief bestowed on the really destitute and needy, still it is but fair to state that the mendicancy of the country has decreased to a considerable extent of late years, and that no case of death from starvation or famine has been reported.

British Consulate, Helsingfor,

29th December 1871.

W.M. CAMPBELL.

RELIEF of the POOR in REVEL, by E. DE SONCANTOR.

Means by
which the
obligation to
relieve is ful-
filled.

ART. 1. According to law, each community of taxpayers is compelled to provide for its own poor. This legal rule is thus carried out:—

1. By an ecclesiastical board, especially for the members of the Evangelical and Lutheran communities;
2. By means of hospitals and poorhouses supported by the town;
3. By means of poorhouses, orphan asylums, charity schools, supported partly by foundations, partly by private benevolence and donations of money.

Support not
obligatory on
relatives.

The civil relief
fund.

Ecclesiastical
boards.

Relations are not legally bound to support their poorer members.

ART. 2. According to established system of civil relief, the civil relief fund is decided by the representatives of the community, in proportion to necessity, while the whole sum required for relief is assessed at so much a head on members of the community. The ecclesiastical board regards, in the first place, community of faith, without entirely excluding the poor of different faiths. In the poorhouses and hospitals of the towns only those who belong to the town community are admitted. Those institutions for the poor which rely for support on the funds of foundations, or which are maintained by private persons, have different principles to ensure the efficiency of their support, according to the nature of the foundation or society.

ART. 3. The care of the community, as has been already remarked in Art. 2, is exercised by a board of representatives. The ecclesiastical body (for the care of the poor) has a committee exclusively chosen from the different church communities for its organ. Delegates chosen for that office by the community are entrusted with the regulation of the city poorhouses. The institutions, both of a private or a public character, have rules and regulations which differ much according to the nature of their foundation or private statutes, but here also the principle of a college foundation is almost universally adopted.

Panperism and
expenditure.

ART. 4. In the year 1870, as far as can be calculated, the sum of 24,359 roubles was distributed by all the institutions (collectively),

out of which sum 671 poor people, exclusive of those under the care of the church, were supported. The number of inhabitants belonging to the taxed (or ratepaying) community amounted to 18,181 souls.

Several benevolent institutions exist here, amongst which the Gousior Foundation, with a capital of 120,000 roubles, is most prominent.

ART. 5. Only those are admitted into the hospitals for whom either private individuals or the community (the latter are legally bound to do it) undertake to bear the *expense*. Those only are admitted into workhouses here, who, through bad lives and non-payment of taxes, become a burden to the community. For special classes of the population there are no almshouses (poor institutions) or workhouses, nor yet are there any other principles for admittance to those which do exist, except those already mentioned, except in the case of poorhouses, "the proved necessity of the persons concerned," and, in the workhouses, "the establishment of the fact that the person to be received has almost reached the lowest depth of degradation." As in the ecclesiastical, so in the secular communities for the benefit of the poor, the support is afforded in different ways; that is, according to actual cases of necessity, whether by admission into poorhouses or hospitals, or by providing sums of money, provisions, or medicines, which the recipients apply according to their own free will, at home.

ART. 6. Tramps and vagabonds, if they belong to a foreign Vagrants. community (parish), are returned to it by means of a compulsory pass.

ART. 7. In the lawful, i.e. the civil (government) community, temporary Settlement. domicile decides nothing, but only the lawful belonging to a parish.

The ecclesiastical relief is applied in cases of necessity to all who are present in a place. According to the city institutions only those are accepted who belong to the city community.

ART. 8. According to law, foreigners who have been incapable of supporting themselves must be sent back to their own country, but an application of this law hardly ever occurs in Revel, because such persons are nearly always supported by church charity or institutions, or private charity, and therefore do not fall as a burden on the state. Foreign paupers.

ART. 9. According to experience, supporting the poor by gifts of money has shown itself *not* to be beneficial, and the attempt has therefore been made to have recourse more and more to natural means of support, such as airy dwellings, provisions, means of industry, assistance in working, and free gifts of medicine. Results.

ETIENNE DE SONCANTON,
H.M.'s Vice-Consul at Revel.

List of HOSPITALS within the PROVINCE of LIVONIA.

NAME OF THE INSTITUTION.	Year of Foundation.	Number in course of the Year.		Last Year's		Number of Persons employed in the Institution.	Of the total Number of persons relieved were received in	Autumn.
		Received.	Dis- charged.	Died.	Receipts.			
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.			
Erg.						2 s. d.	2 s. d.	
Alexander's Sick Hospital	1836	337	192	246	30	3,173 0 0	2,008 0 0	9 130 110 101
" Insane Hospital	1824	68	34	26	9 7	985 0 0	2,033 0 0	11 13 18 16 14
Town poor hospital and lying- in institution.	1803	884	1,460	811	1,461 715	9,374 0 0	6,468 0 0	5 1 25 796 687 461 509
Private insane institution at Rothenberg.	1863	40	26	23	23 6	—	—	18 6 13 18 11
Hospital for disease of the eye	1863	235	206	233	210 224	1 525 0 0	1,650 0 0	4 80 155 100 96
Hospital for skin and other disease.	1867	80	35	33	33 22	— 1,537 0 0	2,060 0 0	1 14 18 30 49 17
Seaman's Hospital	-	187	—	187	— 178	6 —	363 10 0 363 0 0	2 1 7 46 79 56
WOLMAR.								
Town hospital -	1843	By payment by patients	168	81	146 97	—	404 0 0 377 0 0	3 1 3 6 41 43 46
LIMSAI.								
Town hospital -	1862	Ditto ditto	48	11	35 9	37 9	1 181 0 0 194 0 0	1 1 11 15 7 11
WENDEN.								
Town hospital -	1818	Ditto ditto	218	53	194 52	192 53	18 1 591 0 0 576 0 0	2 1 7 38 98 30 110

List of HOSPITALS within the PROVINCE of LIVONIA—continued.

NAME OF THE INSTITUTION.	Year of Foundation.	In what manner kept up? By interests on capital, by yearly subscription, or by both combined?	Number in course of the Year.		Last Year's		Number of Persons employed in the Institution.	Of the total Number of persons relieved were received in														
			Received.	Dis- charged.	Died.	Male.	Female.	Receipts.	Expendi- ture.													
WALK.	-	-	15	15	2	1	13	8	1	4	73 0 0	73 0 0	1	2	3	13	6	4				
Town hospital	-	1851	Town dues	-	-	-	568	140	510	114	492	123	16	9	1,265 0 0	1,265 0 0	1	1	365	127	94	108
DORPAT.	-	1835	By payment by patients	-	237	63	231	51	207	67	11	8	454 0 0	360 0 0	1	—	8	108	74	51	73	
Central hospital	-	-	Ditto	-	196	63	176	45	159	47	10	5	605 0 0	483 0 0	1	—	5	91	53	49	56	
WERE.	-	1837	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-		
PENNAU.	-	-	Town hospital	-	Town hospital	-	Town hospital	-	Town hospital	-	Town hospital	-	Town hospital	-	Town hospital	-	Town hospital	-	Town hospital	-		
FALLIN.	-	1837	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-	Ditto	-		
AMMENBURG.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

List of HOSPITALS within the Province of LIVONIA—continued.

NAME OF THE INSTITUTION.	Year of Foundation.	Number in course of the Year.			Last Year's			Number of Persons employed in the Institution.	Of the total Number of the relieved were received in
		In what manner kept up? By interests on capital, by yearly subscription, or by both combined?	Received.	Dis- charged.	Died.	Male.	Female.		
VÄRK PARISH.									
Träkten Hospital.	-	By provincial noblesee	31	26	-	-	-	-	-
Hospital at Ostie Luhde	1851	By Baron Wulf	34	19	-	-	-	-	-
WÄRHO PARISH.									
Alt Lützen Hospital	-	By the owner	20	-	-	-	-	-	-
ÖRHUS DISTRICT.									
Country hospital and insane institution.	-	By provincial noblesee	68	73	-	-	-	590 0 0	590 0 0
<hr/>									
List of CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS within the Province of Livonia.									
<hr/>									
ALEXANDERHOF POORHOUSE	1864	By Crown gifts	-	46	30	3	11	5	1
Plescoval Educational Institution for Neglected Children.	1859	By both	-	37	13	5	4	4	4
Nicola Poorhouse	-	By money from poor directory	114	112	19	20	7	10	16
Institution for the management of idle and refractory paupers.	1869	By town funds	-	60	14	37	7	32	1
Luther Sunday School	1817	By both	-	-	507	-	-	-	-

List of CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS within the PROVINCE of LIVONIA—continued.

NAME OF THE INSTITUTION.	KEEP or FOUNDATION.	In what manner kept up? By interests on capital, by yearly subscription, or by both combined?	Number in course of the Year.				Last Year's Number of Persons employed in this Institution.	Or the total Number of the relieved were received in
			Received.	Dis- charged.	Died.	Female.		
Bach—cont.								
Orphan School	1824	By both	42	76	16	10	—	351 0 0
Institution for the care of Idiots	1829	Ditto	—	7	1	1	—	350 0 0
School for peasant girls	1840	Ditto	—	69	14	15	—	355 0 0
Magnaten Asyl	1841	By yearly subscription	—	11	—	4	—	355 0 0
Spittel Barnarts Asyljen	1849	By interests on capital	—	20	—	20	—	355 0 0
Institution for reception of small children.	1859	By both	33	30	33	20	—	371 6 6
Marien School	1846	ditto	—	29	11	3	7	150 0 0
Institution for giving free in- struction.	1846	Ditto	—	31	—	4	—	37 0 0
Marien School	—	Ditto	—	—	45	—	10	56 4 0
Elizabeth School	—	Ditto	—	—	14	—	14	—
Olga Industrial School	—	Ditto	—	—	—	—	—	—
Marien Diocesis Institution	1846	By subscription and payment by patients.	55	165	55	55	77	817 0 0
Prebentschelkoff Poorhouse	1770	By both	—	51	160	20	23	557 0 0
Russian Poorhouse	1775	By payment of the poor di- rectory.	63	90	11	3	3	19 0 0 1,450 0 0

List of CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS within the PROVINCE of LIVONIA—*continued.*

NAME OF THE INSTITUTION.	YEAR OF FOUNDATION.	In what manner kept up? By interests on capital, by yearly subscription, or by both combined?	Number in course of the Year.			Last Year's			Number of Persons employed in this Institution.	Autumn.
			Received.	Dis- charged.	Died.	Female.	Male.	Receipts.		
Bigg—cont.									2. s. d.	2. s. d.
Town orphan house	1651	By both -	-	-	-	50	26	10	4	1
Nyrestadt Widows Convent	-	By interests on capital	-	-	-	-	13	-	-	-
Eels Widows Convent -	1596	Ditto ditto	-	-	-	-	23	-	-	-
Convent of the Holy Ghost	1500	Ditto ditto	-	-	-	-	64	-	-	-
Arsenal for children	-	1570	By payment of the poor di- rectory	-	-	37	17	1	2	-
Campenhausen Arseny	-	-	-	-	-	-	27	-	-	-
St. George Poorhouse	-	1754	By both -	-	-	-	28	79	3	-
Asylum for Russian children	-	1863	By subscription	-	-	-	50	50	10	7
Asylum for the suppression of infant mordicity.	1869	Ditto -	-	-	-	-	20	15	18	6
WOMEN.									1	3
Poorhouse	-	1790	By both and town funds	-	-	-	38	3	-	4
WINDS.									-	220 0 0
Poorhouse	-	1767	By town funds -	-	-	-	4	18	-	1
									77 0 0	77 0 0

LIST OF CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS within the PROVINCE of LIVONIA—continued.

NAME OF THE INSTITUTION.	YEAR OF FOUNDATION.	In what manner kept up? By interests on capital, by yearly subscription, or by both combined?	Number in course of the Year.			Last Year's		Number of Persons employed in the Institution.		Of the total Number of the relieved were received in	
			Received.	Dis- charged.	Died.	Receipts.	Expendi- ture.	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.
WALK.											
Dorpat.											
Poorhouse	-	1846	By town funds	-	9 27	1 -	2 -	- 1	69 0 0	69 0 0	-
German Estonian Poorhouse	-	1760	By town funds and subcription. Ditto	24 41	4 19	- -	- -	4 9	498 0 0	498 0 0	-
Russian Poorhouse	-			- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	80 0 0	40 0 0	-
Institution for the management of idle and refractory purposes.	1869	By town funds and own production.	81	8 24	7 18	4 -	- -	- -	389 0 0	389 0 0	-
Marien Orphans House	-	1832	By both	- -	8 -	- -	- -	- -	91 0 0	90 0 0	-
Marien Poorhouse	-	1834	Ditto	- -	16 -	4 -	2 -	- -	169 0 0	187 0 0	-
Institution for reception of small children.	1834	Ditto	- -	10 48	- 15	11 -	- -	- -	85 0 0	78 0 0	-
House for widows	-	1839	Ditto	- -	11 -	1 -	- -	- -	8 0 0	8 0 0	-
Institution to find employment	1868	By subscription	- -	- -	200 -	- -	- -	- -	214 0 0	185 0 0	-
School for pauper girls	-	1861	Ditto	- -	- -	112 -	19 -	17 - 1	151 0 0	145 0 0	-
Alexander Asylum	-	1847	By both	- -	- -	3 -	- -	5 -	- -	- -	-
School for poor children	-	1867	Ditto	- -	- 67	- 27	- -	15 - 1	- -	199 0 0	194 0 0
Institution to work in	-	1864	Ditto	- -	- -	9 49	- -	- -	- -	75 0 0	54 0 0
Waiver Poorhouse	-	1822	Ditto	- -	- 2	17 -	- 1	- -	- 1	92 0 0	92 0 0

List of CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS within the PROVINCE of LIVONIA—continued.

NAME OF THE INSTITUTION.	In what manner kept up? By interests on capital, by yearly subscription, or by both combined?	Number in course of this Year.		Last Year's	Number of Persons employed in the Institution.	Of the total Number of the relieved were received in		Amount.
		Received.	Dis- charged.			Deceased.	Deceased.	
LÄHDELL.								
Town Poorhouse	- 1838	By dues at certain rates	18	13	1	1	1	—
WÄRÖ.								
Town Poorhouse	- 1838	By parish gifts	2	17	—	1	—	—
PÄRNU.								
Town Poorhouse	- 1836	By dues at certain rates	15	27	3	1	1	224 0 0
Alexander Orphan House	- 1836	By subscription	90	169	14	16	20	470 0 0
Society to support widows and orphans.	- 1831	By interests on capital	—	46	6	—	4	216 0 0
FÄLLI.								
Town Poorhouse	- 1838	By both	17	25	5	4	3	322 0 0
Institution for lepers.	-	By income of Kurkumae Kukkula.	—	13	—	—	—	—
ÄRMISTU.								
Town Poorhouse	-	By both	—	9	13	—	2	82 4 0
Orphan house	- 1836	Ditto.	—	16	17	—	—	87 0 0
Institution to work in	- 1838	By subscription and produce	28	25	6	6	16	648 4 0

LIST of CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS within the PROVINCE of COURLAND.

RUSSIA.

Name of the Institution.	Year of Foundation.	Purpose of the Institution.	Capital of the Institution.
MITAU.			
St. Catherin Asylen -	1775	To receive unmarried ladies and widows.	11,241
Klock Widow Asylen -	1783	To receive poor widows of merchants.	12,555
Köhler Asylen -	1854	To receive widows and daughters of literary men.	9,235
Wilhelminen Asylen -	?	To assist poor ladies	3,600
Town Poorhouse -	1588	To receive poor of German and Lettish nations.	8,110
Poorhouse "Rom."	1837	To receive and assist poor members.	711
Jewish Poorhouse -	1551	To receive and assist poor members.	—
Altona Institution -	?	To receive and educate poor children.	1,710
Ladies Society -	?	To assist poor, and school to pauper girls.	1,665
Institution for Children -	?	To receive and educate poor children.	1,315
BAUSKE.			
Poorhouse -	?	To assist poor members	191
FRIEDRICHSTADT.			
Poorhouse -	?	Do. do. -	883
JACOBSTADT.			
Alexanderwruhe Poorhouse -	1826	Do. do. -	—
Jewish Poorhouse -	1827	Do. do. -	—
Ladies Society -	1831	Do. do. -	282
TUCKUM.			
Ladies Society -	1827	—	62
GOLDINGEN.			
German Poorhouse -	1594	To receive and assist poor members.	139
Lettish Poorhouse -	1594	Do. do. -	363
WINDAIL.			
Poorhouse -	1567	—	497
PILTEH.			
Poorhouse -	—	—	—
HASENPOTHE.			
Poor Society -	—	—	—
LIBAU.			
Orphans House -	1798	To educate orphans	34,263
Marien Poorhouse, combined with a correction house for boys and girls.	1790	To relieve poor and aged members.	1,275
IN THE DISTRICT.			
Doblen Poorhouse -	—	—	201
Neu Sabbath School Asylen -	—	—	1,287
Illuxt Poorhouse -	—	—	—

POLAND.

**Report on certain Charities in the Kingdom of
POLAND, by Lt.-Col. Mansfield, Her Majesty's
Consul General, Warsaw.**

May 25th, 1872.

Charitable institutions of Warsaw.

The town of Warsaw possesses in all forty-six charitable institutions, including hospitals, asylums, provident institutions, &c. &c. Four only, however, of the above come under the category respecting which information is called for in Lord Granville's circular, dated November 28th, 1871; namely,

- I. The Grand Warsaw Charitable Relief Society.
- II. The Society of the Blessed Sacrament.
- III. The Society of St. Vincent de Paul.
- IV. The Society for distributing relief in exceptional cases.

Abuses in their management.

As a general rule hospitals and asylums and all the charitable institutions in Warsaw have been so badly administered that every sort of abuse has crept in, in which malversation plays a no inconsiderable part.

Several of the hospitals, owing to the above causes, are heavily in debt, and the Government or Municipality will have to come forward to put them in a working condition.

The greatest disorder prevailed in every institution until the appointment of Mr. Zabłrowski some two years since, as the head of all the charities recognized by the Government, and it is expected that under the able supervision of that gentleman a considerable amelioration will be initiated.

Section I.

The Grand Warsaw Charitable Relief Society.

Grand Warsaw Charitable Relief Society.

- No. 1. This society was founded in the year 1814.
- No. 2. The principal office, Faubourg de Cracovie, No. 370.
- No. 3. Office hours according to accompanying table marked A.
- No. 4. The committee meets the first week in every month, and more often if necessary. The general meeting is held once a year. One quarter of the annual members is held to form a general meeting.
- No. 5. The president of the Society is Prince Thaddeus Lubomirski.
- No. 6. Honorary Secretary, Mr. Cajetan Dombrowski.
- No. 7. The objects of this Charity are set forth in the French translation of the Statutes marked B.

Section II.

Receipts and expenditure.

- No. 1. The amount received by the society in 1871 was 10,200*l.*
- No. 2. The amount expended in 1871 was 10,700*l.*
- No. 3. The largest amount given in one sum in relief was 2*l.* 16*s.*

No. 4. In the year 1871 out-door relief was given in sums from 2s. 8d. to 2l. 16s. 0d. to 944 persons, from 2s. 2d. to 4s. 2d. to 305 persons, medicine to 720 persons, surgical appliances to 25, and wood for fuel to 1,834.

On the account of Mr. Leopold Kronenberg and by the institution, 35,495 portions of soup were distributed at an average of 97·2 daily, the cost of which amounted to 109l., or an average of about one penny per portion. The soup is distributed at noon, and the recipients must renew their applications every month, which are only granted by the committee after the strictest investigation. The soup portions are gratis.

Dinners were distributed to workmen, &c. at a charge to the applicant of something under a penny a dinner, consisting of soup, meat, and vegetables.

On the account of the Viceroy	-	-	18,434
Do. of Mr. Kronenberg	-	-	10,950
Do. of I. G.	-	-	730
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or an average of 82·5 daily; the cost of which amounted to 378l., or an average of about 3½d. per dinner.

The institution has a fund of 3,600l. for the purpose of giving loans to the poor. In 1871, 307 persons received loans amounting to a total of 2,540l.

Section III.

- A. The funds of the society are derived from the annual subscriptions of members. Each member pays an entrance fee of 15s. 6d., and no annual subscription less in amount than 1l. 11s.
- B. Donations in money and kind.
- C. Legacies.
- D. Interest on funded and house property, charges on land, &c.
- E. Proceeds of lotteries, balls, theatricals, concerts, &c. &c., organized in behalf of the society.
- F. Proceeds of the sale of articles made in the different departments of the society.

Section IV.

The Government in 1871 contributed 180l. to the society, and Government contribution and supervision. supervises, but does not co-operate in any respect.

Section V.

The clergy in Warsaw, as clergy, have no charitable agencies. The clergy. The incumbents of parishes are ex-officio members of the society, hut cannot be said to render very efficient co-operation.

POLAND.**Other charitable societies.**

The Grand Society does not co-operate with any other society. The other societies of the same character are those of the Holy Sacrament and St. Vincent de Paul.*

The society for relieving special cases is also quite independent of the Grand Society.

The Russian Nicholas and Mary institutions, although in reality asylums, in some cases afford out-door relief; that is to say, the Committee can vote sums to relieve special cases.

Section VII.**Investigation of cases.**

Investigations are conducted by agents (volunteers) under the sub-committees of each district, who present a certified report of the state of each case recommended for relief.

The investigation relates to character, circumstances, and causes of distress, state of health, age, antecedents, &c.

Section VIII.**To whom relief is given.**

Relief is given to all classes; principally, however, to the working classes and poor tradesman; and in the present state of Poland many are living on charity who have once been in comparatively comfortable circumstances.

Beggars.

There are no restrictions in Poland on professional medicancy; and, owing to the Sclave superstition that it is unlucky to refuse the application of a beggar, the professional medicant makes a prosperous career.

The migration of labour receives no attention. As a rule every handicraft in Poland is understocked. In proportion to the prices of the necessaries of life, every description of labour is immensely overpaid. It would be desirable rather to attract labour than to forward its migration.

Section IX.**Loans.**

Loans are granted, from 1*l*. 5*s*. 6*d*. to 10*l*. at the discretion of the committee, and from 10*l*. to 20*l*. by a decision of the general administration, at 4 per cent per annum, guaranteed by two respectable persons of the same class as the applicant. The loan is to be repaid by monthly instalments, in default of which both the debtor and the shortee pay a monthly fine. In extreme cases the same may be remitted.

The loans are principally granted to persons engaged in trade, mechanics, and artisans.

The society has a fund for this purpose of 3,600*l*. During the year 1871, 307 persons received loans to a total amount of 2,540*l*.

Section X.

No measures are taken, either by the Government or charitable societies, to improve the condition of the poor as regards buildings,

* See separate Reports on these three Societies.

sanitary improvements, promoting provident habits or temperance. POLAND.

There are no statistics to show the ratio of pauperism to the rest of the population in Poland.

There are also affiliated to the Grand Society, but with an Almshouse. individual administration, an asylum for aged women, and women servants out of place, holding forty persons, called "Przytulisko." This asylum is now being enlarged, and next winter is to have a casual ward.

An industrial school for boys, 120 in number.

Eighteen day homes (crèches) for the children of the working classes, where children pass the day when the parents are at work. These homes have an average of 69 children each, who are partially fed, and those of a fit age receive an elementary education.

Each of these homes are maintained and supervised by six ladies of the Warsaw Society.

The following report of the Grand Society for *the month of April 1872* shows the working of the institution.

Working of
the Grand So-
ciety for April
1872.

249 old people and cripples of both sexes maintained at a total charge of 93*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*

212 orphans of both sexes, at a charge of 70*l.* 2*s.*, in 18 day homes; 1,256 children were taken care of, &c. &c.

107 persons received daily penny dinners at a cost of 44*l.*

117 persons received daily portions of soup at a cost of 10*l.* 3*s.*

Out-door relief from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 4*d.* - 25 persons.

Do. from 2*s.* 10*d.* to 8*s.* 6*d.* - 72 do.

From the fund of Count Lubienski, 12 persons 3*l.* 9*s.*

Supplied with medicine 60 persons.

" with surgical appliances 1 person.

The total amount of persons relieved amounted to 2,140, at a cost of 352*l.*

Loans were granted to 71 persons, amounting to 60*l.*, principally mechanics.

Three persons were received by the society, and one deceased.

In the town of Lodz, where the population is almost without exception Prussian, a benevolent society exists for promoting economy by the means of saving banks. Special grants of money are made to deserving cases, and orphans are apprenticed to trades.

TABLE showing the DAYS OF EACH MONTH and HOURS OF MEETINGS of the GRAND WARSAW CHARITABLE RELIEF SOCIETY,
to be held during the Year 1872.

ITEMS.	Hours.																
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.						
Economical—Administrative Department	-	9-23	6-20	5-19	9-23	7-21	4-25	9-23	6-20	10-24	8-22	12-26	3-17	5 p.m.			
Investigation and Relief Department	-	-	10-24	7-21	6-20	10-24	15-22	12-26	10-24	7-21	11-25	8-23	6-20	11-18	5 "		
Council of fund for the relief of French citizens	-	-	13	10	9	6	11	8	6	10	7	5	9	7	"		
Medical Department	-	-	-	-	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	When necessary. 5 p.m.		
Soup kitchens	-	-	-	-	31	29	26	30	31	27	81	30	30	31	29	30	
Care of orphans and poor children	-	-	-	-	12-26	9-23	8-22	12-26	10-24	7-28	12-26	9-23	18-27	11-25	15-29	6-20	5 "
Department of loans	-	-	-	-	18	15	14	18	16	18	18	22	19	17	21	12	5 "
Cheap kitchens	-	-	-	-	27	24	23	27	25	20	27	31	28	26	30	28	5 "
Asylum for poor women	-	-	-	-	8	5	4	1	6	3	1	5	2	7	4	2	1 "
Do. for convalescents	-	-	-	-	6-20	3-17	2-16	6-20	4-18	8-22	6-20	3-17	7-21	5-19	9-23	7-21	6 "

Relief of the Poor in ITALY, by Sir A. Paget.

ITALY.

- The nature of the legal provision for the support of the poor: the extent to which that provision is supplemented by charitable organization, and the legal obligation imposed upon persons to maintain their poor relatives.*

The Italian Civil Code imposes upon a husband the obligation ^{Maintenance} by relatives. of supplying his wife with all necessaries in proportion to his property; upon a wife that of contributing to the maintenance of her husband if he has not sufficient means of subsistence; upon parents that of maintaining their offspring,—which obligation devolves upon the grandfathers and grandmothers when the parents have no means of fulfilling it; upon children that of supporting their parents, or grandfathers and grandmothers, or other ancestors; upon a father-in-law or a mother-in-law that of maintaining a son-in-law or a daughter-in-law,—such obligations being reciprocal, but ceasing on the second marriage of the mother-in-law or daughter-in-law, or when the husband or wife through whom the relationship is derived, and likewise the children by such husband or wife, are deceased; upon brothers and sisters reciprocally that of providing what is strictly necessary for each others subsistence in case of inability to procure it, owing to bodily or mental defects, or any cause other than the fault of the person so incapacitated.

The obligation to maintain a person is declared by the Code to rest in the first place on the husband or wife, in the second place on the descendants in the order in which they would inherit from the person to be maintained, in the third place on the ascendants, in the fourth place on the son-in-law or daughter-in-law, in the fifth place on the father-in-law or mother-in-law, lastly on the brothers or sisters.

The support to be furnished must be in proportion to the need of the person claiming it, and to the wealth of the person who is bound to give it.

There is no legal provision for the support of the poor generally. Obligations provinces and communes. Every province is bound by law to provide for the care and maintenance of pauper lunatics, and to share with the several communes belonging to it the expense of supporting foundlings, in proportions varying according to local circumstances.

Communes are also required to afford gratuitously medical assistance to those who have not the means of procuring it.

Provinces and communes have no other legal obligations with regard to the relief of the poor.

In some parts of Italy, however, by custom or by virtue of regulations made by former Governments, communes still bear certain other charges. In Lombardy, for instance, they defray the expense, either wholly or in part, of maintaining incurable patients in hospitals or at home. In Tuscany deficiencies of hospital revenues are, as a rule, made up by contributions from the different communes

ITALY.

Returns of
Provincial and
Communal
expenditure.

in proportion to the number of patients sent by each to be treated in the hospitals.

From recently published Returns of Provincial and Communal receipts and expenditure it appears that in the years 1869 and 1870 the following sums were spent by the Italian provinces collectively in the maintenance of pauper lunatics and foundlings, and in miscellaneous charities.

1869.

	Francs.	Francs.
Pauper Innatics	- 3,945,948	
Foundlings -	- 7,845,410	}
Miscellaneous -	- 2,556,543	14,347,896

1870.

Pauper lunatics	- 4,315,522	
Foundlings -	- 8,044,754	}
Miscellaneous -	- 2,584,745	14,945,021

The contributions of the communes towards the maintenance of foundlings amounted in 1869 to francs 4,168,333, and in 1870 to francs 4,137,640.

Belief at Rome
under Pontifical Government.

In Rome, under the late Pontifical Government, there existed a general system of relief of the poor, introduced not long after the restoration of Pius VII., and subsequently modified by Leo XII.

The Relief
Commission.

The administration was confided to a Relief Commission (*Commissione dei Sussidi*), composed of a cardinal president and 15 members, the treasurer-general of the Chamber, the Pope's secret almoner, the secretary of the Commission, and twelve deputies appointed by the Pope for a term of six years. The city was divided into 12 regions, each region into parishes. In every parish there was a local board (*congregazione*), composed of the incumbent and two parishioners, one of whom was a lady, appointed for three years by the cardinal president of the Relief Commission. The members of the several parochial boards, with the addition of a physician and a surgeon, formed collectively the region board or *congregazione*, which was presided over by one of the 12 deputies above mentioned of the Central Relief Commission. All these persons served gratuitously, but for every region there were a secretary and a beadle in the receipt of salaries, and the Central Commission employed various clerks and other paid functionaries. The parochial and regional boards, as well as the Central Commission, as a rule met once a month.

The relief to be given to the poor was divided into three classes:—1. *Ordinary*; 2. *Extraordinary*; and 3. *In urgent cases*. Ordinary or daily relief was given in money, and was granted for six months. It might be continued for a longer period. Extraordinary relief was of three kinds: casual assistance, given once for all; marriage portions; and assistance in kind, clothes, bedding, tools &c. &c. The sale of articles so obtained was forbidden

under pain of 10 days imprisonment. Relief in urgent cases was given in money. Persons seeking relief had to address through their parochial board petitions to the cardinal president of the Central Commission. The male or female member of the board visited the petitioner, and reported on the case either to the parochial board, or to the president of the regional board, who had power to grant relief *for urgent necessity* or *in kind*. Other cases were discussed by the parochial board, which reported thereon to the regional board; and on the recommendation of the latter relief was granted by the Central Commission. It could also be granted by the Cardinal President either directly or through the instrumentality of the parish priest. Lastly it may be mentioned that certain fixed periodical allowances, monthly, or for the Feasts of Easter, the Assumption, and Christmas, assigned by papal rescripts were paid through the Commission.

An annual sum of francs 1,350,135 was placed by the Treasury *Revenues* at the disposal of the Relief Commission, which also received about 58,600 francs derived from duties on grants, from bequests, theatrical benefits police fines, alms collected in churches, and contributions from newly created cardinals.

The cardinal president of the Commission had further the distribution of 64,500 francs annually, which sum was obtained from the proceeds of the lottery.

The administrations of the Datary and *Segreteria de' Brevi* also gave away in alms considerable portions of their receipts.

Employment, for the most part nominal, in public works, was *Employment of paupers* another mode in which assistance was given to the indigent.

In the Pontificate of Leo XII. each person so employed received 20 bajocchi,—equivalent to about 10d.,—a day, besides a loaf of bread, and on festivals double that amount, with a portion of meat and bread. Pius VIII. allotted for this object 500 scudi a week. Gregory XVI. increased this expenditure until it reached the amount of 52,000 scudi, or not quite 270,000 francs, annually. In 1868 it was 196,165 francs.

Originally, a recommendation from the president of the relief board of the region to which an applicant belonged was sufficient to enable him to obtain assistance in this way, but the number of persons employed became at last so large that it was found necessary to adopt some restrictive rules for admission. Able-bodied men having no families to support, and not being absolutely destitute, as well as youths below the age of 18, were, as a rule, excluded.

As to the general character of the so-called labourers who were habitually enrolled, Cardinal Morichini, in his useful book on the Charitable Institutions of Rome, says, “It must be confessed that “the majority of the work-people belong to the class of persons “who lead dissipated lives, and have no trade or profession, not a “few among them being under the *surveillance* of the police.”

These public works were under the direction of a commission composed of the cardinal president of the Relief Commission, a

ITALY.

Change of
system.Charitable
foundations in
Italy.Their number
and revenues.

vice-president, an architect, and the secretary of the Relief Commission, through which the required funds passed.

It having been found practically impossible on the change of Government to put an end immediately to the system of relief before described, sums amounting in the aggregate to frs. 830,000 were voted by Parliament last year for its temporary continuance; but with the close of 1871 all such grants of public money ceased, and the municipality of Rome has found it necessary to assume to a limited extent the burden which formerly rested on the State.

Large provision is made in many parts of Italy for the support of the poor by charitable foundations, some of which are very old.

The subjoined statement of the number of such foundations of all kinds, including those for the distribution of relief in various ways, hospitals for the sick, asylums, almshouses, and other benevolent institutions, as well as the amount of their property, in the several under-mentioned divisions of the kingdom, is extracted from a series of official reports on the foundations generically designated as "*Le Opere Pie.*" Those reports, with the exception of that relating to Venetia, which is for the year 1867, are for 1861. The returns relating to Tuscany, Sicily, and Apulia have not yet been published.

	Compartment.	Number of Charitable Foundations.	Amount of Property.	
				Francs.
Piedmont	- - - -	1,768	149,446,562	
Liguria	- - - -	806	51,210,394	
Lombardy	- - - -	2,739	270,178,480	
Venetia	- - - -	646	75,920,715	
Emilia	- - - -	691	109,129,572	
Marches and Umbria	- - - -	779	49,118,724	
Abruzzi and Molise	- - - -	972	13,560,085	
Campania	- - - -	4,535	132,364,049	
Basilicata	- - - -	177	1,721,146	
Calabria	- - - -	222	5,410,631	
Sardinia	- - - -	144	3,871,296	

Charitable institutions in Rome are very numerous.

2. *The principles upon which such provision is founded, and the mode in which any tax or contribution for that purpose is levied.*

No poor rate.

No such special tax or contribution is levied.

The principles upon which the provision above alluded to is founded are laid down by the statutes of each foundation.

Institutions for
out-door relief.

Independently of the hospitals, asylums, and other establishments into which poor persons are admitted, there exist in great variety institutions having for their object, either primarily or in connexion with religious observances, what may be termed out-door relief under different forms;—as, 1st, casual alms; 2ndly, money

allowances to distressed families, payable generally at their own dwellings; 3rdly, assistance given in money and medicines to sick persons at home; 4thly, distributions of articles of food, clothing, and the like, on certain days or occasions, according to the directions of the founders.

The oldest of these foundations, of which the dates are known,* are, in Piedmont, five of the 13th century; in Lombardy, one of the 11th; in Liguria, one of the 14th; in Venetia, three of the 13th; in Umbria and the Marches, one of the 13th; in Emilia, one of the 12th; in the Abruzzi and Molise, one of the 13th; in Campania, two of the 12th; in Basilicata, two of the 16th; in Calabria, five of the 16th; in Sardinia, five of the 17th century.

Funds created at different periods for supplying marriage portions to poor girls are very common.

3. The body or persons by whom the funds for the maintenance and support of the poor are administered, and in what manner they are elected or appointed.

By a law made in 1862 for the regulation of charitable foundations, their administration is secured to the bodies or persons to whom it has belonged by their statutes or by ancient custom; and such administrators are to be elected or appointed in the manner prescribed by the statutes or special rules of the institutions.

Administrators are required to submit to the provincial deputation (the representative body of the province) for approval their internal regulations, their accounts, contracts for the purchase or sale of real property, and declarations of acceptance or refusal of bequests or gifts, decisions having for effect the transformation or diminution of the property of the institution, and other matters of minor importance.

When they cannot obtain the approval of the provincial deputation they may appeal to the King, who decides on the advice of the Council of State.

Communal councils have the right of inspecting accounts and registers, but have no authority to interfere in the administration of charities.

The Minister of the Interior may cause inquiry to be made by special commissioners into the management of any charitable foundations.

Administrative bodies may be dissolved by royal decree, on account of their persistent violation of the statutes, or non-fulfilment of legal obligations, or refusal to attend to the interests of their foundations.

When the objects for which a charitable institution was founded no longer exist, or when its statutes or administration no longer answer the purpose for which they were intended, on an address from the council of the commune or province interested, and with the sanction of the Council of State, the required reforms may be

* There is a considerable number of unknown date.

ITALY. — effected by royal decree, in such a manner, however, as to cause the least possible deviation from the intentions of the founder.

Any new charitable institution must be constituted by royal decree on the advice of the Council of State.

Charity boards. A charity board is to be established in every commune, composed of a president and four members, where the population of the commune does not exceed 10,000 inhabitants, and of eight members, besides the president, where the population is larger. The president is appointed by the communal council for a term of four years. The other members are elected by the council, and one fourth go out of office every year. This board administers all funds destined generically for the benefit of the poor by law, or of which the mode of administration has been left undetermined.

4. *The annual amount of the funds raised and expended, and the number of paupers relieved, distinguishing as far as practicable the able-bodied from the aged and infirm, and from children, and showing also the proportion of paupers numerically to population.*

Income of charitable foundations.

According to the returns before mentioned, the total annual income of foundations specified under the heads of almsgiving, relief in money, relief to the sick, relief in commodities, religious worship and charity, and miscellaneous charity, in Piedmont, Liguria, Lombardy, Venetia, Emilia, the Marches and Umbria, Campania, Abruzzi and Molise, Basilicata, Calabria, and Sardinia, amounted to francs 14,751,836, divided as follows :—

	Francs.
Piedmont	2,945,873
Liguria	483,485
Lombardy	5,045,286
Venetia	1,109,791
The Marches and Umbria	388,941
Emilia	211,515
Campania	3,654,826
Abruzzi and Molise	569,534
Basilicata	200,296
Calabria	97,543
Sardinia	44,746

The subjoined table shows the amount distributed in charity by such foundations, and the number of persons relieved in each compartment.

Almsgiving.				Allowances in Money.				Relief of the Sick or Infirm.				Distributions of Commodities.				Charity in connection with Religious Observances, and Miscellaneous.			
	Amount.	Number of Recipients.	Amount.		Number of Recipients.	Amount.			Amount.	Number of Recipients.	Amount.		Number of Recipients.	Amount.		Number of Recipients.			
Piedmont	-	-	49,932	9,555	Francs. 347,798	109,259	Francs. 339,062	65,173	Francs. 31,956	17,553	Francs. 713,913	43,920							
Liguria	-	-	1,559	163	36,899	5,358	22,169	2,987	10,205	2,954	174,427	11,575							
Lombardy	-	-	179,604	47,057	399,231	65,416	257,123	68,742	74,216	137,839	1,491,703	178,693							
Venetia	-	-	73,135	15,964	129,839	7,914	52,962	28,378	8,731	8,610	392,811	34,990							
Emilia	-	-	67,524	8,069	199,567	26,105	51,946	15,745	-	-	599,955	26,474							
Umbria and Marches	-	-	4,983	4,057	13,627	1,525	21,122	8,639	5,159	1,454	99,813	51,881							
Campania	-	-	25,491	3,782	10,017	1,102	5,631	1,323	4,314	467	750,833	62,967							
Abruzzi and Molise	-	-	171	27	1,029	245	1,927	384	-	-	62,936	15,421							
Basilicata	-	-	8	17	-	-	148	3	-	-	28,243	2,929							
Calabria	-	-	1,815	657	7,218	119	2,416	301	776	66	10,620	3,719							
Sardinia	-	-	2,929	567	1,045	340	266	92	3,156	290	3,066	514							

Criticism of statistics.

Note.—A subsequent and more critical examination of the official statistics which furnished the materials for the preceding table has led to the conclusion that the results shown are, in some respects certainly, and probably in others, very incorrect. This observation is particularly applicable to the two last columns of the table, which give the totals for each compartment under the two heads, "*Culto e beneficenza*" and "*Beneficenze diverse*." Under the former head are intended to be placed all endowments, the specific objects of which are the performance of religious rites, and, whether in immediate connection therewith or otherwise exercised, charity; but it has frequently been made to include many foundations having in reality an entirely different scope. Thus, to cite only two instances out of several, in the city of Naples alone, no less than 155 mutual benefit societies or confraternities, partially of a religious character, and described as "*Operé di culto e di mutuo soccorso*," are set down in the category of "*Culto e beneficenza*"; and in the district of Caserta (province of *Terra di Lavoro*), this category, the total number of foundations assigned to which is 375, comprises 225 such benefit societies.

Average number of persons relieved.

The following figures give for each of the territorial divisions specified the average annual number of poor persons who were the objects of charity under all the above heads together, and likewise the total population according to the returns for 1861, with the exception, however, of Venetia, the returns for which relate to 1867.

	Persons relieved.	Popnlation.
Piedmont	275,460	2,764,263
Liguria	23,087	771,473
Sardinia	1,803	588,067
Lombardy	497,247	3,104,838
Venetia (1869)	85,851	2,496,442
Emilia	76,393	2,005,834
Umbria and Marches	62,506	1,396,092
Campania	68,941	2,625,830
Abruzzi and Molise	16,077	1,212,835
Basilicata	2,949	492,959
Calabria	4,862	1,140,396

In stating the number of poor persons relieved, it is impossible to distinguish, as required, the able-bodied from the aged and infirm, and from children.

Foundations for granting marriage portions.

Another very common form of charity deserves notice. Foundations, the sole or primary purpose of which is to provide what are called marriage portions for poor girls, are very numerous. The sums so given are usually small. The amount paid annually in this way and in other subsidiary charities by such foundations, so far as ascertained, and likewise the numbers of persons receiving from them marriage gifts or other assistance, appear in the subjoined table.

ITALY.

	Amount expended in Marriage Gifts and other Charities.	Total Number of Recipients.	Number of Poor Girls portioned.	Number of Persons otherwise assisted.
	Francs.			
Piedmont - - - -	89,031	3,803	1,009	2,294
Liguria - - - -	48,559	408	257	151
Sardinia - - - -	8,952	182	122	60
Lombardy - - - -	147,676	6,881	2,555	4,326
Venetia - - - -	65,073	4,738	787	3,951
Emilia - - - -	118,358	1,171	870	301
Umbria and Marches - -	71,299	1,596	500	1,096
Campania - - - -	82,325	2,203	1,813	390
Abruzzi and Molise - -	9,797	194	74	120
Basilicata - - - -	4,021	11	11	—
Calabria - - - -	21,408	312	202	110

With regard to the charitable foundations of Rome, Cardinal Morichini's work, already cited, is the best source of information. It makes mention of the following organizations for the out-door relief of the poor, in addition to that furnished by the "Commissione dei Sussidi" before described.

For the care of the sick at their own homes :—

The Sisters of Charity :

The Sisters of Good Help :

The Sisters of Compassion :

The Confraternity of Perseverance.

For the relief of the class of poor persons designated generally as "*poveri vergoquosi*;"—those who, having formerly been in better circumstances, are ashamed to solicit charity :—

1. The arch-confraternity of the Twelve Apostles ; instituted by a bull of Pius IV in 1564.

2. "*Congregazione de' Nobili Aulici di Roma*," for the assistance of distressed gentlemen formerly belonging to the households of cardinals, princes, and ambassadors, &c. ; instituted in 1628.

3. "*Congregazione della Divina Pieta*," established in 1860. The ordinary modes in which it affords assistance to respectable families in reduced circumstances, are by supplying them with bedding, clothes, bread, &c., paying their rent, redeeming articles pledged by them, &c. Large sums of money, however, are occasionally given away secretly in urgent cases of distress which come to the knowledge of the Society. No record is kept of such cases, and the deputies to whom the funds are entrusted give no account of their application. Besides the produce of collections in churches and elsewhere, this Society had in 1870 a yearly income derived from property of frcs. 43,090, about half of which was spent in charity.

For the relief generally of poor persons at their own homes :—

The Society of St. Vincent de Paul established in Rome in

Charitable foundations of Rome.

ITALY. 1842. It had 931 members in 1868, and gave assistance in various ways to 472 families.

The arch-confraternity of the Sacred Heart of Jesus, commonly called "de' Saccioni" from the sackcloth dress worn by its members.

Sundry modern foundations :—

Customary distributions of bread whenever there was an inundation from the Tiber, or a suspension of out-door work owing to snow or continued rain, are also noticed by Cardinal Morichini, who says that the funds for those purposes were originally derived from bequests made in exceedingly remote times.

Numerous endowments for giving portions to poor young girls on their marrying or taking the veil are particularly mentioned.

Revenues and expenditure of the late Commissione dei Sussidii;

Since the above was written, the following statement concerning the relief of the poor in Rome has been kindly furnished by a member of the Municipal Council of this capital.

The late "Commissione dei Sussidii" had at its disposal the considerable annual sum of about francs 1,402,000, of which francs 1,357,122. 75. were received from the finance department; and the remainder, amounting to about francs 150,000, was derived from various sources, as rents of houses, interest of money, dividends, bequests, &c. &c.

About 750,000 francs were spent annually by the commission in different modes of direct relief; 280,000 francs were bestowed on the Orphan Asylum "alle Terme" (*Sta. Maria degli Angeli*), 200,000 francs were allotted to public works, and 70,000 francs to sanitary arrangements; the rest of the receipts, in round numbers francs 100,000, being consumed by the general cost of administration, and sundry permanent charges, &c.

The following were the average annual and monthly amounts distributed in relief under the four heads *Giornalieri* (daily), *Ad Urgenza* (in urgent cases), *Straordinarii* (extraordinary), *In Oggetti* (articles of clothing, bedding, &c.), by the local boards in the twelve regions into which Rome was divided.

—	Annual Average.	Monthly Average.
<i>Giornalieri</i> - - -	Francs. 370,000	Francs. 30,830
<i>Ad Urgenza</i> - - -	44,425	3,700
<i>Straordinarii</i> - - -	59,800	4,980
<i>In Oggetti</i> - - -	62,000	5,160
Total - - -	536,225	44,670

And of the new Charity Board.

As the subjoined table shows, the Charity Board ("Commissione di Carità"), now established in Rome pursuant to the law of August 3rd, 1862, has reduced by about 20,000 francs a month the sums spent in the relief of the poor. This diminution has

been effected partly by putting an end to the distribution of articles of clothing, bedding, &c., and partly by restricting the number of persons relieved.

	RELIEF COMMISSION.				CHARITY BOARD.	
	January 1st to September 30th, 1870.		October 1st, 1870, to March 1871.		April 1st to December 31st, 1871.	
	Monthly Average.		Monthly Average.		Monthly Average.	
	Number of Payments.	Amount in Francs.	Number of Payments.	Amount in Francs.	Number of Payments.	Amount in Francs.
Urgent cases -	2,276	3,518 45	2,460	3,684 97	828	3,152 01
Extraordinary	1,530	4,920 20	1,442	4,615 14	-	-
Daily	4,635	29,394 75	4,645	29,300 15	4,100	28,437 14
Periodical allowances	450	6,875 50	440	7,040 95	433	6,286 16
Casual aid	86	578 80	24	417 14	-	-
Extraordinary relief granted by the President	530	4,238 65	630	4,848 38	40	877 24
Relief in kind—Articles of clothing, &c.	642	8,996 80	1,070	15,111 0	-	-
Total	10,100	59,026 15	10,711	65,517 73	5,401	38,753 55

5. *The extent to which Hospitals, Houses of Industry, or Almshouses, are provided for all or any classes of the Poor; and the principles which are adopted in determining whether poor persons shall be required to come into such establishments or be relieved at their homes.*

It is calculated that there are about 800 hospitals in the kingdom of Italy. Except in the southern provinces, where extensive districts are entirely unprovided with them, hospitals are to be found in almost all the chief towns of provinces and districts, and in a great many places of minor importance. The following statistics relating to them are taken from official sources. They are chiefly for the year 1861.

	Hospitals for the Sick or Wounded.	Beds.*	Annual Average of Patients.	Annual Income.	Annual Expenditure.†	Number and accommodation.
Piedmont	149	6,134	53,634	3,629,310	3,615,625	
Liguria	46	1,733	13,819	904,574	904,376	
Sardinia	6	256	2,006	125,909	106,263	
Lombardy	109	8,124	97,656	6,954,086	7,374,509	
Veneto (1867)	70	5,235	34,554	3,363,789	2,793,714	
Emilia	79	5,921	35,293	3,490,939	3,429,973	
Umbria and Marches	135	4,280	27,016	1,564,051	1,518,667	
Tuscany	49	—	—	—	—	
Campania	49	2,616	8,001	1,668,377	1,678,319	
Abruzzi and Molise	20	555	6,080	223,110	218,189	
Basilicata	6	77	674	21,607	24,139	
Calabria	19	388	3,283	96,400	99,942	

* Most of these beds are offered gratuitously to patients, but for some of them payment is required.

† The above sums include, besides hospital expenses, subsidiary charities, taxes, charges on property, the cost of religious ceremonies, &c.

ITALY.

There were besides, in 1861 and 1867,—

Lying-in-hospitals,—2 in Piedmont, 2 in Lombardy, 11 in Venetia, 5 in Emilia.

Lunatic asylums,—2 in Piedmont, 1 in Liguria, 6 in Lombardy, 12 in Venetia, 6 in Emilia, 4 in Umbria and the Marches, 1 in Campania.

Foundling hospitals,—18 in Piedmont, 11 in Venetia, 13 in Lombardy, 6 in Liguria, 1 in Sardinia, 15 in Emilia, 22 in Umbria and the Marches, 1 in Campania, 1 in the Abruzzi and Molise.

With regard to almshouses, workhouses for mendicants and the like, the following figures are given :—

	—	Number of Asylums.	Average Annual Number of Inmates.
Piedmont	- - -	51	18,157
Liguria	- - -	10	8,589
Sardinia	- - -	2	106
Lombardy	- - -	36	7,091
Emilia	- - -	29	2,713
Venetia	- - -	65	7,692
Umbria and Marches	- - -	21	322
Campania	- - -	5	3,004
Abruzzi and Molise	- - -	1	100
Basilicata	- - -	Nil.	Nil.
Calabria	- - -	Nil.	Nil.

The comparative scarcity of such establishments is attributed to the abundance of the endowments before mentioned for the relief of the poor at home. Within the last few years, however, almshouses for old people have been founded in many places either by voluntary contributions or by grants from provinces and communes.

The numbers of orphan asylums and charitable institutions for the care of girls are thus stated :—

43 in Piedmont, 3 in Sardinia, 61 in Lombardy, 36 in Venetia, 9 in Emilia, 105 in Umbria and the Marches, 27 in Tuscany, 136 in Campania, 8 in the Abruzzi and Molise, 10 in Calabria, 10 in Basilicata, 81 in Sicily.

It seems unnecessary to enumerate the various asylums for the blind, deaf and dumb, &c., &c., and other charitable institutions of different kinds, existing in Italy.

As to the particular destinations of the establishments which come under the present head of enquiry, and the principles which are adopted in determining whether poor persons shall or shall not be required to come into them for the purpose of relief, it would be impossible to give the desired information without examining and describing in detail the statutes and regulations of every one of them. Some hospitals, houses of industry, and almshouses, &c. are provided for all classes of the poor, without distinction of origin; others for special classes and particular localities. They are principally intended for the reception of inmates, but in some

Orphan asylums and institutions for the care of girls.

places poor persons are, under certain circumstances, relieved by such establishments at their own homes.

ITALY.

The numerous hospitals and asylums of Rome deserve to be mentioned separately.

Hospitals.

1. The oldest and most extensive of the Roman hospitals is that Hospitals in of *S. Spirito in Sassia*, founded at the beginning of the 13th century by Innocent III. It was first called *S. Maria in Sassia*, S. Spirito in or *Saxia*, from the name of an ancient church built, together with a house for the resort of Anglo-Saxon pilgrims, by Ina King of the West Saxons; who about the year 728, after his retirement to Rome, established the *Schola Saxonum* in a part of the Borgo, which thence obtained the popular appellation of *Sassia*. The place having become deserted was chosen by Pope Innocent for the great charitable institution soon afterwards called *S. Spirito*, from the religious Order of that designation to which he entrusted its management.

It was originally intended not only for the cure of the sick and the relief of the poor in various ways, but also for the reception and education of foundlings. In 1608 Paul V. incorporated with it a bank of deposit for the profit of the institution; and in 1726 Benedict XIII. transferred to *S. Spirito* the lunatic asylum existing elsewhere in Rome.

The hospital, properly so called, which, like the other branches of the institution, is devoted to the assistance of poor persons without distinction of class or nationality, is principally for the medical treatment of acute cases of disease. It has room for 730 beds.

Its medico-surgical staff consists of 10 chief physicians and 4 chief surgeons, 10 assistants, 4 substitutes, 10 sub-assistants, 8 under substitutes, 1 chief and 1 under apothecary with 13 assistants. There are, besides, 39 sisters of charity, and 126 other hospital attendants, porters, &c. &c.

The daily average number of persons treated from 1855 to 1870 was the following— Numbers relieved.

1855	-	-	573	1863	-	-	399
1856	-	-	646	1864	-	-	385
1857	-	-	732	1865	-	-	352
1858	-	-	617	1866	-	-	345
1859	-	-	434	1867	-	-	376
1860	-	-	510	1868	-	-	390
1861	-	-	494	1869	-	-	344
1862	-	-	443	1870	-	-	380

The total number of persons admitted during the 10 months ended October 31, 1870, and during the corresponding period of 1871, was respectively 8,204 and 10,799. The increase in the latter period was therefore 2,595.

A military hospital where soldiers of the garrison are treated

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ITALY.

—
Foundling hospital.

by contract with the Government is annexed to the general civil hospital, and placed under the same direction.

The second branch of the institution of S. Spirito is that which is devoted to the care of foundlings. A portion of the hospital building specially constructed for that purpose in the pontificate of Sixtus IV., and restored a few years ago, is large enough to contain about 100 infants and from 50 nurses with all requirements. The total number of foundlings received during the 20 years ended December 31, 1870, was 23,191, of whom 11,437 males and 11,754 females. For the 10 years 1860-69 the annual average was 1,141 infants admitted, of whom 382 were ascertained to be of illegitimate, and 300 of legitimate birth, 459 being of uncertain origin. The average annual number of foundlings supported by the establishment was 3,268, and that of the deaths among those of all ages 981. By far the greater number of the infants received are given out to nurse in the country. According to calculations made for a period of 27 years, from 1844 to 1870, the average rate of mortality among foundlings in their first year was 88.78 per cent. for those in the hospital (annual average 651), and 12.80 per cent for those in the country (annual average 2,285), the general average for the whole being 29.64 per cent.

" Conservatory."

In connection with the foundling establishment there is what is called a *conservatory* open, where those girls who are not disposed of in marriage or otherwise are maintained at the expense of the institution of S. Spirito. To those who marry portions are given at the rate of about 530 francs. Boys, when not adopted, as is frequently the case, by the persons who undertake their care until the age of 10 years, are brought up or apprenticed in one way or another, remaining however eventually at the charge of the hospital until the age of 21.

The average annual expenditure incurred on account of foundlings is 305,603 francs.

Lunatic asylum.

The lunatic asylum of S. Spirito contains 669 patients under the care of a directing physician, a vice-director, 3 medical assistants, and 68 keepers, nurses, &c.

As already observed there is a bank annexed to the institution. It was formerly, but has now ceased to be, a source of considerable profit.*

Various other hospitals.

2. The hospital of the "S. S. Mo Salvatore ad Sancta Sanctorium," founded by Cardinal John Colonna in the year 1216, is now reserved for women only. Patients are admitted without distinction of age, condition, nationality, or religion. Their average number is little more than 250, though the hospital would be capable of containing 561 beds. The gross income of the institution amounts to francs 252,000, and after deduction of the charges on the property and cost of administration there remains a net income of francs 165,000. The daily cost of each patient in 1870

* The above account of S. Spirito is principally taken from an interesting report on the management of the institution, by its director, Dr. Pantaleoni. The statements which follow concerning other hospitals and charitable institutions generally at Rome are extracted from Cardinal Morichini's work already noticed.

was calculated at francs 1·80, and that of every attendant at francs 2·60.

3. The hospital of *St. James in Augusta*, founded in 1339 in pursuance of the testamentary dispositions of Cardinals James and Peter Colonna. It is principally for ulcers, tumors, and similar affections. Incurable cases are also admitted. It could give accommodation to about 450 patients, but the ordinary number of those treated is about 250. No conditions of nationality, religion, or class are required for admission. The income of the hospital amounts to francs 228,437.

4. The united hospitals of *S. Maria in Portico*, founded by Pope Celestine III. towards the end of the 12th century, *S. Maria delle Granzie*, established by Gregory VI. in 1045, and *S. Maria della Consolazione*, for wounds and other injuries requiring immediate surgical treatment. There is room for 180 beds. The total income is francs 97,000.

5. The hospital of *S. Maria and S. Gallicano* for cutaneous diseases, established by Benedict XIII. in 1726, contains 238 beds. It has a yearly income of francs 13,975 besides francs 53,750 received from the State (this was under the Pontifical Government) as compensation for property confiscated. The cost of every patient is about francs 2·04 a day. The average number of patients is nearly 100.

6. The convalescent hospital of the Holy Trinity. The average number of persons in it is reckoned at about 95,—the maximum being, for men, 120; for women, 60; and the minimum for both men and women, 10.

The primary object of this foundation, which dates from 1550, was the reception of pilgrims to Rome in years of jubilee under the care of the arch-confraternity of the Holy Trinity. The house destined for that purpose has dormitories capable of accommodating about 500 persons, and refectories where nearly 1,000 can be fed at once.

Pilgrims seeking the hospitality of the institution were required to prove that they had come from a distance exceeding 60 miles, and for the purpose of visiting the holy places.

The following statistics of the numbers received in the years jubilee from 1575 to 1825 are given by Cardinal Morichini.

Years of Jubilee.					Number of Pilgrims who received hospitality.
1575	-	-	-	-	116,848
1600	-	-	-	-	324,600
1625	-	-	-	-	852,760
1650	-	-	-	-	308,533
1675	-	-	-	-	311,777
1700	-	-	-	-	300,000
1725	-	-	-	-	382,140
1750	-	-	-	-	136,515
1775	-	-	-	-	99,667
1825	-	-	-	-	263,592

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The arch-confraternity of the Holy Trinity, when first approved by Pope Pius IV., had only 15 ducats a year of its own, and made up what was wanted by collecting alms. It now has an income of francs 174,976, and the annual expenditure of the whole institution is reckoned at francs 172,300.

7. The lying-in hospital of S. Rocco has an income of francs 23,377. The principle of the institution is the observance of absolute secrecy. Any pregnant women are admitted without inquiring as to name or condition. Those who are not considered as poor pay a small sum monthly, when, as is frequently the case, they come into the hospital for the purpose of concealment a long time before delivery.

8. The hospital of St. John Calibita, commonly called "*dei Benfratelli*," for acute cases of disease, was founded in 1581 by the monks of the order of *S. Giovanni di Dio*, popularly designated as the "*Fate bene fratelli*." This order has the entire management of the hospital, and, with the exception of the principal physician and surgeon, all the persons employed are members of it. As a rule, patients are admitted only on the recommendation of a benefactor of the institution. The average number under treatment is about 40.

In 1867 the receipts, a considerable proportion of which was derived from the sale of medicines prepared in the pharmacy of the establishment, amounted to francs 75,000, and the expenditure for the hospital, and the maintenance of the brethren attached to it, to francs 53,750, the remainder being applied to repairs, charges of administration, &c. At the beginning of that year there were 50 patients in hospital; 919 were admitted in the course of the year, 59 died, and 865 went out. The daily cost of every patient was franc 1.50.

9. A special hospital for poor priests, founded in the 17th century by a certain Giovanni Antonio Vestri.

10. The hospital of *S. Francesca Romana*, for chronic affections, founded by the will of the late Cavaliere Carlo Doria Pamphilj, was opened in 1860. To be qualified for admission, patients must be Romans domiciled in the city who are incapacitated for work by chronic maladies, and who cannot be received into other hospitals. Persons suffering from cutaneous diseases are excluded.

11. A room for the treatment of eye diseases, established by Prince Torlonia.

12. Of the great number of special hospitals for particular guilds and nations or provinces which formerly existed in Rome, there remain only two of the former category, a hospital for apothecaries or druggists and a hospital for bakers; and one of the second category, the Spanish hospital, founded in 1350 by two ladies of Barcelona, and the endowment of which was augmented by Charles V.

Houses of Industry, Almshouses, and other Asylums.

The buildings formerly used as public granaries at S. Maria degli Angeli (Battes of Diocletian) were made by Pius VII. a

Houses of industry, almshouses, and other asylums.

receptacle for mendicants, which was converted by his successor into what was called a house of industry. According to Cardinal Morichini, however, no such institution ever existed, except in name, in Rome. The house was finally transformed into an asylum for destitute orphans. It contained in 1870, 350 boys and about 450 girls. Boys, besides being taught the catechism, reading, writing, and arithmetic, were brought up to various trades. There were also schools of design, music, and gymnastics. The age of 18 was that fixed for leaving the institution.

Girls were taught useful work of different kinds. They were at first allowed to remain in the asylum until they married, or became nuns, or went into service; but latterly the rule was introduced that they should be dismissed when they had arrived at a certain age, and were capable of earning their livelihood.

The great almshouse, or combination of almshouses, of S. Michele, also called "*L'Ospizio Apostolico*," was begun towards the end of the 17th century, extended by Clement XI., and completed by Pius VI. in 1794. It gave shelter and support at one time to a considerable number of old men, old women, orphan boys and girls. The produce of certain duties—those on rags, wood, playing cards, as well as the anchorage dues of Porto d'Auzio—was assigned to this institution. It also had annexed to it, as a source of revenue, a large cloth manufactory, which, however, proved a failure, and was closed in 1861. After the troubles of 1848, the "*Ospizio Apostolico*" fell into financial embarrassments, from which it never appears to have been extricated, and in late years the institution seems to have had little more than a nominal existence.

The municipality is now in treaty for the buildings where it is proposed to establish a refuge or workhouse for mendicants.

By the rules of this institution, no old men were taken into the almshouse unless they were Romans, or had been domiciled in Rome for at least five years. For the admission of boys, it was necessary that they should be orphans, and natives, if not of the city of Rome, at any rate of the Pontifical States.

Certain small almshouses for old women have been created by private charity within the last twenty years.

Several night refuges are mentioned. The most important of them, "*L'Ospizio di S. Galla*," was founded by a priest of the family of Odescalchi in 1650. "It was here," says a writer of the 17th century, "that the good priest Odescalchi exercised the eminent virtues which are known to the world. Here he afforded shelter to an infinite number of poor people, for whom more than five and six hundred, sometimes upwards of a thousand, beds, when there was extraordinary want, were prepared. With his own hands he gave soup in the evening to all those who presented themselves. . . . He had their ragged clothes patched, their shoes mended, he waited on them at table, instructed them with incredible patience in religion, took singular care of their bundles, and sometimes (as I who write have observed to my great edification) caused their filthy heads to be cleaned, and medicaments to be applied for itch or scaldhead;

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" performing, further, all the acts of charity and humility that can be done by an abject servant of indefatigable patience" . . .

. This institution is placed entirely under the patronage and direction of the Odescalchi family. In 1869 it had 140 beds for men only, in five dormitories—three common, one with nine beds reserved for men suffering from itch, and one with seven beds for ecclesiastics. Persons were admitted in summer until half an hour, in winter until an hour, after nightfall. Applicants were required to produce a recommendation from the parish priest. As a rule, no one could be re-admitted except on certain fixed days.

Near this refuge for men there is another, dedicated to S. Louis Gonzaga, for women. It was founded in 1731 by the Jesuit Father Francesco Galluzzi. This establishment has 60 beds.

In many parishes there are houses in which lodging, but not food, is given gratuitously to poor widows, about a hundred of whom had rooms provided for them in this way in 1869.

Orphan asylums.

Two orphan asylums may be noticed. One of them owes its origin to the benevolent exertions of a common artizan, named Giovanni Borgi, in the second half of the last century. It is for boys, who must be Romans. They are maintained in the asylum until the age of 21, but the system adopted is to make them learn different trades by working out of doors as apprentices, rather than within the establishment itself. In 1869 the total receipts of this asylum amounted to francs 44,950, and the annual cost of maintenance was reckoned at the rate of francs 340 for every boy.

The other asylum, the foundation of which dates from the year 1540, is for poor orphans left by respectable Roman parents, and who have received a certain elementary education. They are admitted only between the ages of seven and ten years. The boys are not brought up to trades, but receive a classical education.

Conservatoires.

There are many institutions, called *conservatoires*, of a semi-monastic character, for the maintenance of girls until they either marry or become nuns. A detailed description, however, of these and other charitable foundations of various kinds in Rome would be tedious.

6. *The mode in which Vagrants and Beggars are dealt with.*

Vagrants and beggars.

By the Public Security Law of March 20, 1865, as amended by the law of July 6, 1871, on information laid by the police, or, in default thereof, on the ground of public notoriety, the magistrate called Pretone may summon any person charged with being an idler or a vagrant to appear before him within five days. On the appearance of such person, the magistrate, if the charge be admitted or proved, admonishes the idler or vagrant to find regular work, and to show that he has done so within the time prescribed, ordering him not to remove in the meanwhile from the place where he is without previous notice given to the place. When the person summoned denies the charge, and it cannot be immediately established, the case is adjourned for another period of five days, in order to obtain further evidence.

If a person admonished as above-mentioned neglects to comply with the injunctions he has received, such disobedience is punishable with imprisonment for not less than three or more than six months.

Vagrants and idlers under the age of 16 years may be, according to circumstances, either consigned to the care of their parents or guardians, or placed in a workhouse or reformatory.

At the expiration of his term of imprisonment, the vagrant, if a foreigner, is conducted to the frontier and expelled the State; if an Italian citizen, he is directed to the local authority of the commune where he has declared it to be his intention to fix his residence, which he is required not to change without previous notice to that authority.

If he does not keep to the route traced out for him, or if he fails to present himself within the term prescribed to the proper authority, or if he leaves the residence assigned to him without permission, he is liable to imprisonment for a term of not less than one month or more than one year.

A person who has undergone a sentence of imprisonment for vagrancy may be forbidden by the prefect of the province to establish his residence in the place chosen by him, under pain of imprisonment for not less than one month or more than one year.

A place of residence during a period of from six months to two years, or, after conviction for a repeated offence, from one year to five years, may be assigned to such vagrant by the Minister of the Interior.

The law above cited of March 20, 1865, provides that in communes where there is no mendicity asylum, persons unable to work, and who have neither means of subsistence nor relations bound by law to support them, shall receive from the municipal authorities certificates of poverty and inability to work; which certificates, duly countersigned by the district political authorities, shall be considered as licences to beg within the district. Licensed beggars.

It is understood, however, that such permission is not to be granted in places where sufficient charitable foundations exist for the relief of the poor.

Mendicancy is prohibited in all cases except those above mentioned.

Under any circumstances beggars are forbidden to show their sores, injuries, or deformities, to carry heavy sticks or other arms, or to express desperation by words or gestures. Begging by night is always prohibited.

Any person found begging without a licence is taken into custody, and handed over to the judicial authority, to be proceeded against according to law. But in a commune where there exists a mendicity asylum, if the person found begging is unable to work and without means of subsistence, he is sent to such asylum, and kept there until he has acquired the means of subsistence, or until some one undertakes to maintain him.

Cardinal Morichini records a series of ineffectual endeavours to Mendicancy in repress mendicancy in Rome which were made by several Popes Rome. since the middle of the 16th century.

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Former attempts at repression.

Pius V. issued a bull prohibiting begging in churches under the severest penalties. Gregory XIII. charged the arch-confraternity of the Holy Trinity for the care of Pilgrims and Convalescents with the duty of clearing Rome of beggars. Those incapable of working were to be maintained in the monastery of S. Sisto, which he assigned to the society for that purpose, and the able-bodied were to be sent away to earn their livelihood by their own labour. Full power was given to the arch-confraternity to imprison paupers or expel them from the city. In execution of the Pope's brief to this effect, all the beggars in Rome were required to present themselves on a certain day at the hospital of the Holy Trinity. Eight hundred and fifty of them having been so collected were made to march in solemn procession to their destined asylum, which soon, however, had to be abandoned as unsuitable. The measures adopted proved quite inefficacious, as appears from a bull in which a few years later Sixtus V. declared that the public places, private houses, and churches were filled with importunate and clamorous beggars, who wandered about the city without having any fixed abode, without religious instruction, and seeking nothing but food. In order to put an end to such a state of things the Pope established a great asylum or almshouse for the indigent, without distinction of nationality, and he ordered that those who should still persist in begging rather than go into the house should be severely punished, even in some cases with the galleys.

The desired result, however, was far from being obtained. Only twelve years after the death of Sixtus V., according to a contemporary writer, the beggars infesting the streets were so numerous that there was no possibility of walking in the town without being surrounded by them, while, on the other hand, very few indeed remained in the asylum.

Innocent X. ordered all beggars to be shut up in the Apostolical Palace of St. John Lateran, but his intentions do not seem to have been fulfilled, and Pope Innocent XI. came to the conclusion that the design was not realisable. Innocent XII. took up again the plans of Sixtus V. for the extirpation of mendicity, and with that view instituted the "*Ospizio Apostolico*," which has been noticed in another place.

The "Company of St. Elizabeth" or Beggars' Guild.

During the greater part of the 17th and 18th centuries there existed a regularly authorized beggars' society, designated by the name of the Company of S. Elizabeth. It had between 400 and 500 members, each of whom contributed two *bajocchi* and a half (about twopence halfpenny) a month towards the expenses of religious ceremonies, of which there were many. Once a year the blind, led by the lame, went in penitential procession with a military escort to visit four churches. Penalties were inflicted on members of the company who failed to pay their subscriptions, or were wanting in due respect to their superior officers. No one was allowed to beg in the streets who was not a member. Children, able-bodied men and women, and foreigners, were excluded. Strangers, however, were sometimes allowed to beg in the winter on payment of the ordinary subscription. All the members of the company were furnished with licences. They practised

begging among themselves, certain of the brethren being charged with the duty of soliciting alms from the rest for those who were ill. On Sundays one of the officers of the company, called *Camerlengo*, who was lame, accompanied by two who were blind, called the *Signore* and the *Guardiano*, went about the town with fiddles and a poet to collect offerings for the feast of the patroness of the society, St. Elizabeth. The custom was to carry a silver basin for contributions, with ten crowns and a silver snuff-box in it; and every one who put money into the former was asked to take a pinch of snuff from the latter. This grotesque trade union, which was founded in 1613 and lasted until the revolution at the end of the 18th century, was placed under the protection of a cardinal. Its last protector was Cardinal York.

Pius VII., in setting on foot, and Leo XII., in completing, the general system of relief which has already been described, made stringent regulations against mendicity, but their edicts for its suppression seem to have been as fruitless as those of former popes. Again in 1837 all beggars were summoned to give an account of themselves. The infirm received a licence to beg, and a medal which they were to wear. The ablebodied, if strangers, were sent away, or, if Romans, were required to find work. Non-compliance was punished with imprisonment on bread and water for a first offence, and with heavier penalties for a second offence. A house was subsequently established where unlicensed beggars were temporarily placed.

A singular old custom, still existing when he wrote his book, *The forty hours*, the second edition of which was published in 1870, is described by Cardinal Morichini. A chosen band of forty beggars received special licence from the cardinal vicar to take post outside the doors of churches during the solemnity called *The forty hours*, and the devout had to pass on every such occasion between two long rows of vociferous mendicants, whose clamour even disturbed the prayers of the congregation within. Of these privileged beggars about half were blind and the rest cripples. One third of the whole number were women. The age for admission was not fixed, and the licence was held during good behaviour. The patronage belonged to the cardinal vicar, who appointed to vacant places.

7. The Principle adopted in determining the Chargeability of individual Paupers; viz., whether they are relieved at the cost of the locality where they become destitute, or whether their places of birth or domicile are liable to defray the charge.

It has already been stated that there is no legal obligation, except in certain particular cases, upon local bodies, whether provincial or communal, to relieve paupers. The places of birth or domicile of individual paupers are not liable, as a general rule, to defray the charge of their relief elsewhere. In some parts of the kingdom, however, communes are bound to repay the expenses incurred in the maintenance or treatment of poor persons belonging to them in the hospitals or mendicity asylums of other places.

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—
Foreign
paupers.

8. *The manner in which Paupers who are Foreigners are treated; that is to say, whether they are allowed to remain in the country where they become destitute and are relieved as native paupers, or whether they are sent back to their own countries.*

The greater part of the charitable institutions already mentioned for the out-door relief of the poor in various ways make no distinction between foreigners and natives.

With regard to the admission of pauper foreigners into hospitals or asylums in the absence of any reciprocal agreements between Italy and the countries to which they belong, no general rule can be laid down. Their respective consuls, in places where such agents reside, are expected to defray the cost of their treatment.

In the case of lunatics the charge of their treatment is assumed by some provinces, in others it falls upon the Government. As soon as they are fit to be removed they are sent out of the country.

Working of
the system.

9. *The practical Working and Effect of the actual System of Relief upon the comfort, character, and condition of the inhabitants.*

This is a very wide question. It involves no less than a minute enquiry into the social and economical condition during many centuries of every part of the Italian kingdom. There is no general system of relief; and he must be a bold man who will venture to make a general affirmation as to the practical working and effects of an immense number of most unequally distributed and differently managed charitable foundations, some of quite recent, others of very remote, origin.

Some observations on this subject which occur in an esteemed work by Mr. Fano, one of the highest authorities on matters relating to the condition of the poorer classes in Italy, deserve consideration. ("Della Carità Preventiva e dell' Ordinamento delle Società di Mutuo Soccorso in Italia." Chapter IV. "Del Pauperismo e delle Condizioni delle Classe Lavoratrice in Italia.)"

This writer, describing the squalor and destitution of a large proportion of the peasantry and artisan population of Italy, says:—

"But if we ought to make war implacably upon idleness and ignorance, because with us, as in all other nations, they are the first and chief causes of misery. The growth of that misery in our country is in great measure due to those very institutions which were created for its suppression,—the magnificent palaces which rise up on all sides in our cities to give refuge to suffering humanity. The life and soul of Italy, said Moreau Cristophe, are in her charitable institutions. And, indeed, there is no kind of wretchedness or pain for which our fathers have not shown pity; and this spirit of charity has been preserved and displays itself more vividly every day. Still better than in institutions, it dwells in the hearts of all men. The result is that the property devoted to the relief of the poor amounts in every town in Italy to enormous sums, which are swallowed up without profit, even if they do not produce injury and shame.

Opinion of
Mr. Fano.

But the crowd of beggars seems to multiply in proportion to the increase of the charities destined for the alleviation of their wants.

The very profusion of charities is then one of the principal causes of the spread of mendicity in our country. When all feel sure that, in whatever disaster, they will find succour, and that they will obtain their sustenance from charity if they do not earn it by their labour, there ceases to be any reason for being provident, and instead of relying upon his own strength every one accustoms himself to reckon upon the support of others. Thus are annihilated the vigour and the spirit of enterprise which are necessary for a man destined to lead a laborious life, and all sense of responsibility is lost. A man may beget children without taking the trouble to reflect whether he can feed them, because an asylum and a maintenance will be found for them in the foundling hospital or in other institutions for the care of children. The prospect of sickness does not make him redouble his exertions, and think of the necessity of saving and providing for an evil day, because it appears to him sufficiently provided for by the hospital or the almshouse.

But in order to obtain relief it is necessary to be poor, or at least to seem so, and the man who works has not the aspect of poverty. The workshop is then abandoned, and the rags of common wretchedness are put on; and thus many persons voluntarily adopt a mendicant life, and, finding it easier and more profitable than one of toil, choose begging for their industry, and make it their estate. Their example is contagious; it is readily followed, for nothing renders a man more reluctant to work than the sight of indigence relieved. And thus misery increases in proportion to the relief which it finds, and misery and relief are alternately cause and effect

"In Italy there are 1,365,341 indigent persons, but no system of legal charity exists. But the multitude of charitable institutions, their mode of administration, their great wealth, and the improvident manner in which their funds are frequently applied, are vices which have for us the same effects as those of legal charity, if not worse. A careful investigation of the elements which compose the property of the charities of Italy, their true and their hidden aims, their incomes, and the manner in which they are employed, the proportion of receipts to expenditure, the condition of those who really derive benefit from charitable distributions, and the material and moral results which are finally obtained from the application of such funds, would bring out some very curious and sad revelations. But, so far as we can see, the manner in which charities are administered in different parts of Italy is not very consoling, and everywhere the want of radical reform is more or less felt. Nor does the last law on charitable endowments satisfy our necessities, and a complete revolution is required rather than partial reforms.

"One of the cities in which there is the greatest abundance of wretches who live upon charity, is our future capital, Rome." (This was written in 1868.) "Rome is second

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to none, perhaps stands first, in profusion of relief; but the number of patients admitted into its magnificent hospitals is small in comparison with that which might be received. This is the consequence of mal-administration. And relief is given in such a manner that many poor persons receive assistance from several institutions, the directors of which, either from want of communication between one institution and another, or from confusion in their management, are ignorant of the fact; so that while many of the indigent get double portions, others cannot obtain any relief. Favour is more often the guide than justice, and the greatest hypocrite often receives the largest bounty. Hence it is that charitable assistance has almost always a corrupting effect; for, in order to make show of want, the pauper has recourse incessantly to lies, romances, tears, and sores; and there is no degree of baseness and adulation of which he is not capable to propitiate a benefactor.

" If some of the riches which are squandered in such manner were directed to the purposes of education and the promotion of labour, they would be of more benefit to the classes which are now parasite, and would then become productive and moral. For I persist in thinking that in Italy mendicity is an imposture, and not produced by real destitution. And in support of this opinion might be adduced the fact that when Napoleon abolished the religious orders and the convent alms at Rome, out of 30,000 beggars left thus without assistance only 15,000 had themselves registered and taken into St. John Lateran's. The same thing happened in Lombardy in the time of Joseph II. When the work-houses of Pizzighettone, Abbiatagrasso, and Milan, were opened for beggars, the greater part of them disappeared."

Mr. Fano's theory criticised.

Subsequently published statistics do not support the theory advanced by this author that the profusion of public charity is one of the principal causes of pauperism in Italy. They show,* on the contrary, that in 1861 (and the proportion is no doubt, the same now) the means provided for the relief of want and suffering of all kinds were smallest in those parts of Italy where the misery of the population has always in modern times been greatest; while conversely the most prosperous regions possessed the largest endowments, not only absolutely, but relatively to the number of inhabitants.

By way of illustration, the following figures may be added to those already given. They show, together with the population, the average annual expenditure for charitable purposes of all descriptions in the different regions for which there are returns. Care has been taken to eliminate very considerable sums which appear in these returns under the heads of *Monti Frumentarii* and *Monti di Pietà*.† These institutions were originally founded with

* So far as the returns extend. Those for some of the Neapolitan Provinces, as well as Sicily and Tuscany, have not yet appeared. Rome is, of course, not included.

† In Piedmont, out of a total so-called charitable expenditure of frs. 8,257,684, there came under the head of *Monti Frumentarii* frs. 6,796, and under that of *Monti di Pietà* 1,547,513. For Lombardy the figures are, total, 13,408,251; *Monti Fru-*

benevolent intent, but it is absurd now to class them among charities. Some account was given of the former, the *Monti Frumentarii*, in Mr. Herries's Report on Land Tenure, &c. in Italy (1870). They constitute in reality a form of agricultural credit in kind. Seed corn is advanced at certain seasons to small cultivators, the conditions of the loan being generally that the quantity received is to be restored at the expiration of a year to the stock from which it is taken, with the addition of one-tenth, or, in other words, the loan is to be repaid in a year with ten per cent. interest. Charity at ten per cent. seems too profitable an investment to be justly considered as very meritorious.

As to the pawning establishments called *Monti di Pietà* (of *Monti di Pietà*), which the honour of the invention appears to belong to Italy), although they were at first devised for the benefit of the poor, they are actually used by all kinds and conditions of people. Articles of great value are frequently pledged to them,—jewels, works of art, rare old furniture, choice books, &c.; and it is manifestly unreasonable to reckon the sums advanced on such deposits as money spent in charity, or the borrowers among the persons upon whom charity is bestowed.—After these deductions the account stands thus:—

	Population in 1861.	Average Annual Charitable Expenditure.	Charitable ex- penditure in various pro- vinces.
Piedmont - - -	2,764,263	Francs. 6,696,154	
Liguria - - -	771,473	2,264,098	
Lombardy - - -	3,104,838	9,928,874	
Venetia (1867) -	2,496,442	4,987,842	
Emilia - - -	2,005,834	5,155,409	
Umbria and Marches -	1,896,092	2,034,478	
Abruzzi and Molise -	1,212,885	302,388	
Campania - - -	2,625,830	4,403,984	
Basilicata - - -	492,959	91,868	
Calabria - - -	1,140,396	218,971	
Sardinia - - -	588,064	125,803	

Piedmont alone spends in public charity, as we see, about one-third more than the four southern divisions, Abruzzia and Molise, Campania, Basilicata, and Calabria together, although its popu-

mentari, 109,135; *Monti di Pietà*, 3,369,242. For Liguria, total, 3,165,209; *Monti di Pietà*, 901,111. For Venetia, total, 20,351,221; *Monti di Pietà*, 15,362,379. For Emilia, total, 8,482,474; *Monti Frumentari*, 95,895; *Monti di Pietà*, 3,231,170. For the Marches and Umbria, total, 3,409,610; *Monti Frumentari*, 685,993; *Monti di Pietà*, 689,139. Abruzzi and Molise, total, 2,109,765; *Monti Frumentari*, 1,659,375; *Monti di Pietà* and similar institutions, 148,002. Campania, total, 5,808,357; *Monti Frumentari*, 1,007,367; *Monti di Pietà*, &c., 397,056. For Basilicata, total, 1,032,993; *Monti Frumentari*, 840,191; other loan institutions, 100,934. For Calabria, total, 1,103,817; *Monti Frumentari*, 750,587; *Monti de Pegui*, 134,309. For Sardinia, total, 239,001; *Monti Frumentari*, 7,000; *Monti di Pietà*, 106,198. The aggregate number of persons returned as benefited (*persone beneficate*) is 4,802,250, of which total no less than 3,124,927 appear under the heads of *Monti Frumentari* and *Monti di Pietà*, &c.

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lation is less than half of theirs. The charitable expenditure of Lombardy, with a somewhat smaller population (3,104,838 against 3,118,789), amounts to considerably more than twice that of Campania and Basilicata together (frcs. 9,929,874 against 4,495,802), although in Campania is situated the greatest of Italian cities, the capital of the Southern Kingdom at the time to which the returns chiefly relate. The two divisions, Piedmont and Lombardy, together, show an expenditure much more than three times the total expenditure of the four southern divisions above-mentioned, with the addition of Sardinia, (16,626,028 francs against 5,142,964 francs), the population of the two former being less (5,869,101 against 6,070,084) than that of the five latter divisions.

If we exclude from the comparison hospitals for the sick, foundling hospitals, asylums for orphans, lunatics, the deaf and dumb, &c. &c., and confine our intention to endowments or institutions for the relief or support of the indigent considered simply as such, we shall find the disproportion still greater.

On examination of the tables given elsewhere in this report, it appears that the aggregate annual expenditure (on an average estimate) of the several foundations for simple almsgiving, regular relief in money, relief in kind by the distribution of various commodities, charity in connection with religious practices, as well as those for miscellaneous charitable purposes, amounted in the four above-named Neapolitan divisions to frcs. 897,194, the number of recipients being 90,726 ; in Sardinia to frcs. 10,196, with 1,711 recipients ; and in Piedmont and Lombardy together to frcs. 3,290,352, received by 638,792 persons ; and it also appears that there existed in Campania, the Abruzzi and Molise only six* almshouses, workhouses for mendicants, or the like, having 3,104 inmates, in Basilicata and Calabria none at all, and in Sardinia two with 106 inmates; while in Piedmont and Lombardy there were 87 with 25,248 inmates.

Four workhouses, &c., with 2,974 inmates, and an expenditure of frcs. 500,132 in out-door relief, belonged to the city of Naples alone, or its immediate neighbourhood. If these sums be taken out of the totals set down for the Neapolitan divisions, the remainder will give them very insignificant shares.

No rational and sincere person will contend that during a long period (perhaps always) before 1861 the condition of the poorer classes was not infinitely more wretched, or that † mendicancy was not far more prevalent in the southern provinces of Italy than in Piedmont and Lombardy. The island of Sardinia has generally been described as the abomination of desolation.

So far, therefore, as the comparison just made extends, it shows

* One of these, however, at Naples, can hardly be considered as coming properly under this designation, being apparently nothing but a Magdalen Asylum.

† According to a calculation (more or less conjectural) given in the introduction to one of the reports above cited, there was, in the Sardinian Kingdom, 1 beggar to 118 inhabitants ; in the duchy of Modena, 1 to 30 ; in the whole of Italy, 1 to 41 ; in the kingdom of Naples, 1 to 26.

that misery was not in direct proportion, as alleged by Mr. Fano, but, on the contrary, in inverse ratio to the means provided for its relief.

Not dissimilar results may be obtained elsewhere.

It may fairly be assumed that there is generally more distress in the region called Emilia, which comprises the provinces of Bologna, Ferrara, Forli, Modena, Parma, Piacenza, Ravenna, and Reggio, than in Piedmont or Lombardy. Three of its provinces in particular, those of Modena, Parma, and Reggio, were shown by the report of the Royal Commission on the first tax disturbances in 1869 (see Mr. Herries's despatch to Earl Clarendon, and his report on Land Tenure) to have been for some time past in a state of continually increasing poverty and wretchedness. The proportion of beggars to population was calculated several years ago as being nearly four times as large in the then duchy of Medena as in the Sardinian States (1 in 30 in the former, and 1 in 118 in the latter).

According to the theory that charity and misery are correlative terms, we ought to find larger provision for the relief of the poor in Emilia than in Piedmont and Lombardy; but the contrary is the case, as the following figures demonstrate :

Piedmont.—Population (1861) 2,764,263. Relief of the indigent in almshouses, workhouses, or refuges for mendicity, &c., and out of doors, at their own homes or otherwise, excluding the relief of the sick by various eleemosynary foundations, annual expenditure, francs 1,737,016, being at the rate of 62 centimes and a fraction per head of the population. Number of persons relieved, 198,444, or upwards of 7 per cent. of the population.

Province of Turin.—Population, 941,992. Relief expenditure, francs 1,040,349, or 1 franc 10 centimes per head. Number of persons relieved, 115,887, or about 12½ per cent.

Lombardy.—Population, 3,104,838. Relief expenditure, francs 3,073,714, or about 99 centimes per head. Number of persons relieved, 435,596, or 14 per cent.

Province of Milan.—Population, 948,320. Relief expenditure, francs 1,629,739, or nearly 1 franc 72 centimes per head. Number of persons relieved, 97,323, or about 10½ per cent.

Emilia.—Population, 2,005,834. Relief expenditure, francs 967,557, or about 48½ centimes per head. Number of persons relieved, 67,279, or about 3 per cent.

Province of Modena.—Population, 260,571. Relief expenditure, francs 115,113, or about 44 centimes per head. Number of persons relieved, 10,483, or about 4 per cent.

Province of Parma.—Population, 256,029. Relief expenditure, francs 163,577, or nearly 64 centimes per head. Number of persons relieved, 7,227, or less than 3 per cent.

Province of Reggio.—Population, 230,054. Relief expenditure, francs 148,531, or about 64½ centimes per head. Number of persons relieved, 15,015, or about 6½ per cent.

ITALY.

Now, it may be observed, on the authority of the report of the Royal Commission above alluded to, that the condition of the people was far better in the province of Bologna than in the three provinces of Modena, Parma, and Reggio; and we find that the annual expenditure of the first-named province for the purposes indicated greatly exceeded the amount spent in any of the last three provinces, being francs 475,025, or at the rate of 1 franc 16½ per head of the population (407,452). But, on the other hand, the proportion of persons relieved was smaller, the number being 8,945, or a little more than 2 per cent. of the inhabitants.

A general concurrence of testimony seems to establish the fact that distress is greatest among the peasantry in most parts of Italy; and it is certain that the rural districts throughout the country are those in which the provision for the assistance of the poor is least. In very many of them, indeed, there is none whatever; and in those where public charity in any form is exercised, it is frequently confined to the distribution of the most paltry doles. Page after page of the Charity Reports has numerous statements of rural communes with only one endowment affording aid in money or in kind to a few persons at the rate of about five, four, three, two francs, one franc, or even less, to each individual yearly.

All the facts which have been adduced, and they are important facts, are diametrically opposed to Mr. Fano's theory; but, on the other hand, there may be alleged in support of it the no less significant fact that Rome, always pre-eminent in lavish almsgiving, has always been distinguished for the wide diffusion of its squalid indigence, for the magnitude of its many-sided mendicity.

Conclusion.

What conclusion can be drawn from these conflicting truths? Only this one, that it would be eminently irrational to draw from them any conclusion whatever.

The farther the inquiry proposed is pursued the less likelihood does there appear of its ever leading to any positive result. What tests must be applied, what method of investigation followed, for the purpose of determining the effects (if any) of the systems of relief which have been described upon the comfort, character, and condition of the inhabitants of the kingdom of Italy?

To deal with this subject as a whole seems impossible.

It would be absurd enough to describe in general terms the moral and economical state of the inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland; to speak without distinction of the character and condition of the inhabitants of Surrey and of Tipperary, of Hampshire and of the Isle of Mull. Still more unreasonable would it be thus to generalize concerning the people of Italy; to link together in one phrase the character and condition of the inhabitants of Udine and Girgenti, of Potenza and Como, of Tuscany and Calabria Ulteriore II.

If we wish to get at anything real we must abandon superficial generalization, and carry on the inquiry district by district, commune by commune. It will be necessary, in the first place, to endeavour to arrive at a correct appreciation of the character and

condition of the inhabitants of every commune in which public charity exists. Next, in the case of the recent establishment of any system of relief, we must try to learn what they were before its introduction; and, where its origin is ancient or immemorial, we must make our researches extend over all the centuries during which it has been in operation. But this will be insufficient unless there be also taken into account all the collateral causes and influences that may in the course of time have tended to affect the condition and modify the character of the inhabitants. Much more will still remain to be done before judgment is pronounced. A complete comparison must be made between the condition, past and present, of those places which have charitable endowments, and that of the places which have none.

This would, without doubt, be a most interesting study, but it would probably consume the whole of an ordinary man's life, and therefore be fruitless for the purpose of the present Report.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS in VENICE, by GIOV. RUFFINI.

VENICE.

Public charities are regulated in the kingdom of Italy by the law of the 3rd of August 1862, in virtue of which the administration of all charitable institutions and moral establishments destined for works of charity and benevolence must be conducted by boards, councils, directions collegiate or separate, constituted by their respective foundation laws, special regulations or by ancient customs.

The law of
1862 as to the
administration
of public chari-
ties.

When, however, either by act of parties living or by a disposition of last will property is destined for the benefit of the poor, or, when it is so destined by force of law, in one word, when the administration, the work of charity, the public establishment, for whose benefit the property is destined, is determined, the congregation of charities, of which by law there must be one in every commune of the state, will assume the administration thereof.

This is the general organisation established by the Italian law for public charities. As has been said, the administrations established for works of charity by private founders are by force of law respected. It must, however, be observed that even those institutions cannot properly be considered autonomical, inasmuch as the law places all charities under the guardianship of their respective provincial deputations, which are a mixed authority, in so far that although the deputies are elected from the provincial council they are under the presidency of the prefect. These deputations exercise their guardianship with legal authority, to their approval are subjected the rules of the administration, accounts of expenditure, principal contracts, and in general all matter affecting the patrimony of the institutions. Moreover, the constitution of new charitable institutions with special administrations must be done by a decree of the King in Council, even though the constitution be effected by means of voluntary contributions or associations.

VENICE.

Charitable institutions in Venice.

To give briefly an idea of the several charitable institutions which exist in Venice, I must first notice that the administration of charities in this city may be considered as divided into two grand sections, which respectively embrace, if not all, certainly the greater part of the charitable institutions of the province. The first section is that which is now called "Riunione di Istituti Pii" (Reunion of Charitable Institutes), which has under its administration the following :

1. "Casa di ricovero ed ospizi sparsi" (Poor-house and houses of refuge in various parts) :
2. "Ospidale Civile Generale" (General Civil Hospital) :
3. "Casa degli Esposti" (Foundling Hospital) :
4. "Orfano Trofio Maschile" (Orphan Asylum for boys) :
5. "Orfano Trofio Femminile" (Orphan Asylum for girls) :
6. "Casa di Penitenti" (Penitentiary) :
7. "Casa d'Industria" (Workhouse) :
8. "Conservatorio delle Zitelle" (Asylum for young unmarried Women) :
9. "Casa dei Catacumini" (Asylum for Converts) :
10. "Cà di Dio."

1.—POOR-HOUSE AND HOUSES OF REFUGE.

Poor-house and houses of refuge.

This institution had its origin at the time of the league of Cambray; the founder, Girolamo Miani, a Venetian patrician, commenced it as a hospital for the plague; it was afterwards converted into an ordinary hospital for the sick and for abandoned orphans, and finally since 1812, to a refuge for the aged, sick, and impotent, to endeavour to suppress mendicity. In order to afford refuge, more than 20 houses of refuge, much smaller than the one above-mentioned, have been opened in other parts of the city, in which at the present time more than 600 persons are received.

2.—OSPIDALE CIVILE GENERALE (GENERAL CIVIL HOSPITAL).

In Venice, there were formerly several hospitals, which, however, at the fall of the Venetian Republic, were concentrated in one. The number of patients is calculated at 1,100 per day, at the cost of Italian livres 1·33 (1s. 2d.) per each person. The patrimony of the hospital is insufficient for its wants, and it is therefore largely succoured by the comune.

3.—ISTITUTO DEGLI ESPOSTI (FOUNDLING HOSPITAL).

This hospital was founded so far back as the year 1346. The wheel still remains, but by a recent deliberation it is shortly to be discontinued. The average number of foundlings received has been calculated at 450 per annum. It has a patrimony of some

importance, but not adequate to its wants, and it is therefore aided by the province.

4 and 5.—ORFANO TROFI, MASCHILE E FEMINILE (ASYLUMS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS).

The first institution for the reception of poor orphan children was founded in the year 1527, in the time of pestilence. The Orphan Asylum for boys received 110 orphans, at the cost of Italian livres 1·22 (1s. 0½d.) a head per day; the patrimony of the institution is very small, and it is therefore assisted by the comune. The Orphan Asylum for girls receives 224 orphans, at the cost at Italian livres 1·10 (11d.) a head per day. The patrimony of this institution is likewise slender, and it is consequently aided by the comune.

6.—CASA DELLE PENITENTI (FEMALE PENITENTIARY).

This asylum for the reception of penitent prostitute women was instituted so long since as the year 1357. They are here taken care of for five years, and even more. In case of their marrying, a dower is provided for them, the greatest amount of which is about Italian livres 600 (24l.) The maintenance of each person is calculated to cost about Italian livres 1·45 (1s. 2½d.) per day. The patrimony of this institute is sufficient for its wants.

7.—CASA D'INDUSTRIA (WORKHOUSE).

Its scope is to receive the poor of the city, not incapable of labour, but who cannot at the moment obtain work. It was opened in the year 1812. In general it must be said that this institution has not been productive of useful results. It not being obligatory on those who are unprovided with work to enter the workhouse, they have recourse to mendicity, and the workhouse becomes a voluntary refuge, which the idle accept for the food and the slender allowance of money they receive. It is now in contemplation from a regard to public security to convert the workhouse into a receptacle for mendicants, with a house of industry annexed. The project relative thereto was drawn up by the writer, and it now awaits the decision of the Communal Provincial Council on the various points of necessary discipline, who will determine respecting it. A copy of the project is herewith sent. The workhouse is aided by the commune, as will be the new receptacle for mendicants.

8.—CONSERVATORIO DELLE ZITELLE (ASYLUM FOR GIRLS).

It was founded in the year 1558, and had for scope to preserve from peril young girls of noble and respectable family and of extreme beauty, to educate them properly and to provide for their collocation. It is now an asylum for girls without the special

VENICE. — restrictions before mentioned. It has its own patrimony, and each pupil costs Italian livres 1·95 (1s. 7½d) per day.

9.—CATECUMINI (ASYLUM FOR CONVERTS).

This institution was established in 1557 for the reception of converts and neophytes. It originated with the Venetian Expeditions (to the East), which on their returning brought with them infidel slaves. Its patrimony, which was at one time abundant, has decreased, but it is still sufficient for the wants of the institution, which has been gradually declining, so that at the end of 1867 it had only three converts.

10.—INSTITUTION AT CA DI DIO.

This was founded in the year 1272; its original scope was to afford hospitality to pilgrims, who were going to the Holy Land. On the cessation of pilgrimage, the establishment was converted into an asylum for ladies of noble birth, who had fallen into poverty. At the present time it receives 30 inmates. Its patrimony is sufficient.

The total amount of patrimony confided to the care of the Reunion of Charitable Institutions is calculated at 12,000,000, twelve millions of Italian livres (480,000*l.* sterling).

The second section of the Administration Order of Public Charities in Venice is represented by "La Congregazione di Carità" (Congregation of Charities).

This administration is composed of a president and eight deputies, and has for object, as before stated, the administration generally of all property, destined generally for the benefit of the poor, proceeding from bequests by last will, donations, public spectacles, &c., &c.

The capital confided to its administration is estimated approximately at six millions of Italian livres (240,000*l.* sterling).

The last Doge of Venice, Ludovico Manin, left a rich legacy in order that an institution might be opened for the reception of poor children, both legitimate and illegitimate, and to make them good artisans. There is one section for boys, another for girls. In the first about 60 boys, in the latter more than 100 girls are received. The patrimony was increased by other legacies, so as to exceed the foundation capital by one million livres (40,000*l.* sterling).

In concluding this brief report of the charitable institutions of Venice, I must not omit to state that the congregations of charities distributes its subsidies through the medium of 30 parish boards (Deputazione fraternate), one in each of the 30 parishes in which the city of Venice is divided.

Venice, February 1872.

(Signed) **Advocato GIOV. B. RUFFINI,**
Deputy of the Congregation of
Charities in Venice.

**Relief of the Poor in PORTUGAL, by
A. R. Sampaio.**

PORTUGAL

[TRANSLATION BY J. DUFF.]

SIR,

IN reply to the letter of the 18th ultimo, in which your General Excellency forwarded to me a note of Her Britannic Majesty's marks. Minister at this Court, applying for information respecting the legislation regarding public charitable institutions in Portugal, and their mode of operation, I have the honour to send herewith to your Excellency the following data, which, although insufficient to answer precisely the several queries contained in that note, and which were drawn up with reference to the organization of that branch of the public service in England, will nevertheless afford an idea of the nature of our charitable institutions and of the principles which regulate them.

It is expedient at the beginning of this short memorial to record a truth, namely, that in Portugal pauperism does not exist (*sic in original*; the writer means pauperism having a legal claim to relief from the public funds or assessed rates). This evil, which accompanies the development of industry in the large centres of operatives, and which casts large populations into a permanent condition of brutish ignorance and misery, does not exist in our country, which is more agricultural than industrial, and where the population, even in those provinces where it is more concentrated, has not yet reached a dangerous state of accumulation.

The evil, therefore, to which our legislation has to apply a remedy is far more limited than that which England and other countries of Europe have to combat. The misery which afflicts the indigent classes among us is not at present greater than it was in those times when charity, rather as a religious precept than as a moral obligation, instituted thousands of establishments for the purpose of relieving the poor and indigent.

For this reason these establishments are still, to a great extent, the basis of the actual organization of public charitable relief. The number and wealth of these charitable establishments, which were due to the piety of our ancestors, and which were developed and improved with the progress of catholicity, afford a proof how very great and fervent has always been the charity of our people, one of the first Christian virtues.

In addition to the zealous initiative of private charity, exercised either individually or by means of associations,—for guilds, confraternities, or brotherhoods, and “mizericordias” (soundling houses and hospitals), are nothing else,—vestiges are to be found at every step in our ancient legislation that the State not only accompanied (*sic in original*) them but also assisted them, at times by bestowing important privileges upon those establishments, at others by according them valuable donations, and, finally, by

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taking upon itself some of the charitable duties which they could not discharge.

The actual organization of this branch of public administration, respecting which Her Britannic Majesty's Minister has applied for information, is still based upon the same principles. The State does not take exclusively upon itself the heavy charge of charitable relief, but at the same time it does not leave it altogether to the care of individuals. The efforts of private individuals and the action of the constituted authorities mutually help each other.

Consequently, in Portugal, the system of legal charity does not exist; what exists, though incompletely developed, is the system of official charity. The law does not recognise the right of the poor to receive alms, and it does not impose a general tax for their maintenance; but it protects all charitable establishments, subsidizes some of them, and with respect to a certain unfortunate class, the foundlings, it makes the expenses incurred with them a matter of obligation (*sic in original*; the writer does not state, as he ought to have done, "obligation on the respective municipalities").

The relief of the poor in Portugal is therefore simultaneously exercised by the State, by the local administrative corporations, and by private institutions and societies.

It now remains to be seen how the relief derived from these three sources is applied to diminish the evils which are produced by indigence at the three principal ages of man, namely, infancy, manhood, and old age.

Foundlings. The law takes special care to protect all children who are destitute of the natural protection of their parents or relatives. In the Civil Code it is enacted that all foundlings and minors abandoned by their parents, when the latter are unknown, shall remain up to the age of seven years under the guardianship and administration of their respective municipality, and that after that age they shall be given up to the boards of charitable relief to children, which boards are entrusted with the duty of providing for their education and looking after their interests up to the time when they can be emancipated.

Such protection is also extended to any sons, if minors, of any indigent persons who through the death, advanced age, or illness of their parents, or from any other justifiable cause, cannot be supported by them or by their relatives.

Duty of the municipalities. The Administrative Code imposes upon the municipality the duty of paying for the maintenance of all foundlings, and confers upon the general boards of the different districts the right of voting the sums which each district must contribute towards the payment of such expenses. The amount expended on the admission of foundlings, according to the system established in our legislation, was, in the year 1868-1869, the last mentioned in the official statistics, Reis 428,107,430 (95,135*L*).

Asylums for pauper children. The protection afforded to infancy is not limited merely to what has been stated. Throughout the kingdom there are 31 asylums

(established for the most part in the capitals of the different districts) for the reception of indigent minors and orphans; in these asylums minors are admitted, after their fifth year, for the purpose of receiving an education befitting their special circumstances. These establishments are maintained by their own revenue with which they have been endowed by generous benefactors, by private subscriptions, or by societies, mostly of recent date.

In addition to these asylums, where minors have got a permanent residence, there are others which only receive them during the day for the purposes of education, and at night they return home to their families. Those maintained in Lisbon by a society called "The Society for the Protection of Asylums for Indigent Children," appertain to this class.

The Portuguese legislation is not less solicitous with regard to Mendicity. the misfortunes which attend manhood than with those which accompany infancy. The Administrative Code, with the object of repressing mendicity, confers upon the parochial boards the functions of committees of charitable relief, and imposes upon them the duty of taking the census of the poor in their respective parishes, and of promoting, in accordance with the laws and regulations and with the instructions of the Government, the extinction of mendicity. In furtherance of these provisions the penal law looks upon mendicants as vagrants, and punishes them with imprisonment not exceeding six months.

Measures of a less general nature with respect to the capital of the kingdom, where mendicity assumes a graver aspect, rendered it necessary to establish in 1836 and 1867 the asylums of "Mendicity" and of "D. Maria Pia," where aged and helpless mendicants, who are unable to obtain by their labour the necessary means of subsistence, are received.*

The decrees by which these two establishments were organised also provided for relief to be afforded to the poor in their own houses, with the object of relieving the hospitals and asylums of the charge of all such persons as may have temporarily fallen into want, or those who, being encumbered with a family, can with a little assistance be attended to and supported in their own houses. The provisions contained in these decrees have not yet been put in practice; and it is only in Lisbon that the "Santa Casa da Misericordia" provides a few people with medical attendance and medicines during their illness.

With respect to the treatment of the sick, the relief of the poor in Portugal also receives valuable assistance from the pious establishments already alluded to, and which are to be found

* This sentence is as confused and unintelligible in the original as in the translation. What the writer seems to have meant to say is that "the necessity for the adoption of measures of a less general character in the capital, where mendicity assumes a graver aspect, resulted in 1836 and 1867 in the establishment of the asylums called the 'Mendicity' and that of 'D. Maria Pia,' where aged," &c.—N.B.—In second paragraph the writer has stated that "pauperism does not exist in Portugal."

PORTUGAL. throughout the country as a proof of the piety of our ancestors. — The “misericordias” are pious and charitable institutions which had their origin at the commencement of the 15th century, and which attained to their utmost development on account of the excellence of the doctrines (*sic in original*) of their statutes, which, being as it were a compendium of all Christian virtues, provided a remedy for all human misfortunes ; the “misericordias” or “guilds” which always enjoyed a special protection, also maintained out of their considerable revenues the different hospitals founded in the several towns throughout the country, with the exception of the hospital of “San Jozé” and those annexed thereto, which possess revenues of their own, and are directly subsidized by the public treasury.

Hospitals. The number of hospitals maintained by these “misericordias” amounts to 270, where the sick poor, not only those of the respective districts but also those from abroad, are taken care of. The expenses of these establishments are calculated at Reis 329,298,833 (73,164*l.*)

Almshouses. For the reception of all such poor persons who in the last years of their existence have no longer strength to acquire by their labour the necessary means for their support, or any relatives who might properly be called upon to support them, there are in Portugal eight asylums, in addition to the hospitals, maintained by pious institutions and charitable societies.

Statistics. The last official statistics, published in 1863 by order of the Chamber of Deputies, estimated the value of landed property and houses and of other property belonging to the different charitable institutions throughout the country at Reis 12,368,984,998 (2,748,663*l.*) According to the same statistics their revenue was calculated at Reis 983,292,583 (218,509*l.*)

In addition to this revenue of the different charitable institutions and of the sums voted by the general boards of the different districts for the maintenance of foundlings, the State spends annually, for the purposes of charitable relief, the sum voted in the general budget of the revenue, which for the financial year 1871-1872 amounted to Reis 183,043,041 (40,676*l.*)

A portion of this sum is destined to subsidize the charitable establishments of the capital, and the remainder is intended to defray the incidental expenses of this branch of public administration.

Conclusion. Such is the abridged sketch of the system of charitable relief in Portugal. From the same it may be seen that while the State exercises by means of the administrative authorities the supreme control over this service, the different towns, as represented by the general boards of districts and the municipalities, and the pious institutions and the charitable societies, co-operate with and aid each other in the accomplishment of the duty of diminishing and relieving the different evils which afflict the indigent classes.

With reference to what has been stated, your Excellency will not fail to perceive that it is impossible to furnish all the data applied for in the note from Her Britannic Majesty’s Minister,

PORTUGAL.

owing to the fact that some of the queries have reference to institutions which do not exist in our country and are specially connected with a system different from that which is established in Portugal.

May God preserve your Excellency.

Home Office, January 5, 1872.

(Signed) ANTONIO RODRIGUES SAMPAIO.

To His Excellency

The Minister for Foreign Affairs.

True copy.

Foreign Department, January 26th, 1872.

(Signed) E. A. MONTEVERDE.

I have gone over this translation with Mr. Duff, and made a few verbal corrections. In making it, Mr. Duff aimed at rendering his translation as literal as possible, and did not attempt to correct or improve the style of the original even where it seemed obscure and involved.

Lisbon, May 12th, 1873.

CH. MURRAY.

CONSTANTINOPLE.

CONSTANTI-
NOPLE.

MY LORD,

Constantinople, April 2, 1872.

WITH reference to your Lordship's despatches, Nos. 191 and 210 and marked Circular of the 23rd October and 20th November last, I have the honour to forward herewith a very interesting and instructive Report which has been addressed to me by Mr. Jerningham on the charitable institutions of this capital.

I have the honour to be, &c.,

Earl Granville, K.G.,

(Signed) HORACE RUMBOLD.

&c., &c., &c.

SIR,

Constantinople, 26th March 1872.

WITH reference to Earl Granville's despatch marked Circular No. 191 of October 23, 1871, to Sir Henry Elliot, requesting information as to the nature and extent of the arrangements in force in this country for the relief of the poor, and answers to questions prepared with a view of obtaining as complete a knowledge of the subject as is practicable, I have the honour to remark, that the heterogeneous character of the populations which constitute the Turkish Empire renders it difficult, if not impossible, to reply in any satisfactory manner to the queries laid down by Her Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

To render the subject, however, as clear as it is in my power to make it, I must crave permission to look at the Christian population of Turkey as the most interesting, and likely to furnish the most

No uniform
system of re-
lief.

CONSTANTINOPLE.

Charity among the Turks.

Large endowments of mosques.

Wakouf.

Imarets or feeding houses.

Hospitals.

Lunatic asylum.

details as to the manner in which charity is dispensed in the East, and among these to consider the Greeks as possessing the best system, as well as the most complete, for the relief of the poor, and on this ground to be the most deserving of notice.

With respect to the Turks it will be enough to say that the Prophet having, in the Chapter IV. of the Koran (revealed to him at Medina), recommended his people "to show kindness unto parents and relations and orphans and the poor," and commanded them, in Chapter XCIII. (revealed at Mecca), "not to oppress the orphan nor to repulse the beggar," the essence of charity has become one with that of religion, and hence that mendicity is not repressed, nor are the poor likely to be refused shelter and food when they ask it of one of their fellow Mussulman co-religionists.

Charity and religion, however, being thus associated, it was natural that the founders of large mosques should provide also for the wants of the poor, while looking to the interests of these buildings, and hence in the early days of the Ommiad and Abasside Khalifs, large revenues were assigned for the use of these mosques, and were termed Evcaf or Wakouf, which is the plural of Wakf.

Suleiman the Magnificent wishing to ensure the good designed to revert upon the public out of the property thus assigned to the Church, though not necessarily absolutely abandoned to it, "divided the Wakoufs into three classes, all enjoying the same ecclesiastical protection, though not intended for the exclusive benefit of the church." (*White's Constantinople.*)

The second class was to comprise all useful and charitable institutions, contributing to the advantage of the people at large or to the relief of the poor, such as khans, libraries, colleges, schools, kitchens for the distribution of food, almshouses, lunatic asylums, baths, fountains, &c.

The revenues of such Vakoufs consist in the dues levied upon each transfer of Vakouf property from one holder to another either by sale or succession; namely, 3% upon the value of real property.

Of these 3%, however, the Vakouf administration only receives 1½%, while the other half reverts to the heirs of the founders of such Vakoufs, styled djabi.

These latter are obliged to pay in return a fixed annual sum to the administration for the keeping up of charitable institutions.

Of these, however, there do not now exist in Turkey any but the "Imarets" or eating houses for the poor, where bread, butter, rice, and boiled rice (zerde and pilaf) are freely distributed to such who come for it.

In Constantinople there exists but one Imaret at present, which is dependent upon the Solimanieh Mosque.

There ought properly to be no hospitals, the Mussulman religion being opposed to their establishment, but since the Crimean war, a few military hospitals have been erected, some of which I am assured, vie with European institutions of the kind in point of good keeping and cleanliness.

There is an asylum for lunatics in Stamboul, and in each of the

principal towns of the empire, but I am equally told that the condition of their inmates is pitiful.

CONSTANTINOPLE.

From what precedes it will be seen that—

1st. The law has only been called into requisition to regulate the proper distribution of moneys arising out of the Vakouf revenues, much more than to provide for the wants of the poor, who being cared for by individual charity, are not now, whatever they may have been in former times, the actual gainers by the sums nominally set apart for their benefit.

2nd. That the supposed revenue which is assigned to the use of the poor is equivalent to a tax upon those who themselves benefit by the Vakouf revenues, and not a duty levied upon every Mussulman subject for the benefit of his poorer brethren.

3rd. That notwithstanding the care taken by the founders to secure the faithful administration of property assigned for the maintenance of charities, gross malversation continues to be practised, through the collusion of the Government and other inspectors charged with examining the different edifices to which revenue is attached.

4th. That it is impossible to give with any degree of certainty the annual amount either of funds raised or the number of paupers so relieved.

5th. That private charity supplies the want of public institutions for the relief of the poor.

6th. That vagrants and beggars are allowed to multiply and become troublesome.

7th and 8th. That a common religion constitutes a common fatherland for Mussulman subjects, while Christians are allowed to search for help among their respective compatriots either for the purpose of relief or of obtaining means of returning to their homes, even though such homes be under the suzerainty of the Sultan; and

9th. That the principal effect of the actual system of relief carried on in Turkey upon the comfort, character, and condition of the Mussulman inhabitants is to disturb the one, sour the other, and impoverish the third.

While, however, a sounder administration of the revenues of the Vakoufs, and a proper assignment of the share which the poor are entitled to in their distribution, would probably greatly relieve the general population from the burden imposed upon it by the culpable mismanagement, not to use a stronger term, of the administrators of Vakouf property, yet it must be remembered that the precept of charity being so strongly recommended by their religion, few Turks would consider it otherwise than a duty, if not an honour, to obey the injunctions so often repeated in the pages of the Koran, and that thus their temporal ease must give way to their spiritual good, even though the former may be on an ever decreasing scale, and the latter of a stationary illusive character.

With respect to the Christians in Constantinople, which, being the seat of the catholic primates and the orthodox patriarchs, naturally sets the example to the other cities of the empire, there

Charities among the Christians.

CONSTANTINOPLE.

Foreign poor relieved by their compatriots.

are many distinctions to be established, arising out of their national rather than their religious denomination.

Thus all the embassies relieve a certain number of poor claiming a foreign origin; and as regards Italy, Austria, and Russia, the number of such poor is so great that the several heads of mission representing those countries have also to care for hospitals, asylums, and schools for their benefit.

Count Ludolf, the Austrian minister, has recently obtained, if I am correctly informed, that such penalties which are incurred by his subjects in the Austrian Legal Consular Court, and can be redeemed by money payments or fines, shall be so exchanged, and the fine will be appropriated to the use of the poor belonging to his country. The idea appearing to me to be novel and expedient, I have reported it as worthy of consideration.

The Russians give to their charities a political character, by the ostentation with which they patronize all the subjects of the Porte that claim to belong to the orthodox creed.

But, notwithstanding this pretension on the part of the Muscovite embassy, the end is somewhat distant from that in contemplation, for no means exercised have introduced as yet any members of the Russian Church into the ranks of the Pera vestries, where lies, as I shall presently show, the whole system of orthodox charities; nor have the orthodox Bulgarians and Armenians resigned their mode of dispensing alms among themselves.

The Perotes, who are mostly composed of French and Italian settlers of long standing, as well as catholic Greeks, look to the French embassy to preside over the numerous charitable institutions and societies which they have fostered, through their charitable donations, for the relief of the catholic poor generally.

The Armenians are divided into Gregorians, orthodox, and catholics, each denomination following a system of its own.

Although I shall again refer to these several classes, I may as well state that it would be an invidious task to analyse, in extenso, the working of all the institutions and societies born out of the charitable aspirations of the Christians of all creeds that inhabit this city; for while, on the one hand, the figures are too small to satisfy a statistician, there is besides so little reliance to be placed in the details of all the sums expended that, with your permission, I had rather confine myself to an exposition of the Greek system of vestry relief, without interference from either the law or the priesthood, than enter into an examination of figures, which at best can only be productive of erroneous conclusions.

Greek system of vestry relief.

Constitution of the vestry.

Each parish church belonging to the Greeks of the orthodox religion has a vestry (*fabrique*) attached to it, which is composed of five members (*πενταριθροί*), of whom one is the president, freely elected every year by a general assembly of all the parishioners, including even the poor, for whose benefit the *χειλεῖον*, or assembly, takes place, and are generally selected from among the wealthiest householders in that parish.

No papas or priest is allowed to co-operate with this council except by giving information, and the scope of their action extends

to the receipt and disbursement of all sums collected in church, or at the several private houses, or of moneys bequeathed for charitable purposes.

They keep the books and registers, and appoint the overseers, or Their duties, *τεφόροι*, of the poor schools dependent upon the parish.

No State authorities co-operate with this council, either with funds, personally, or with information. They investigate into the cases of applicants for relief, and grant money aids or other relief as they deem fit.

Their books are audited yearly, and the general accounts read at the assembly, but they are not printed.

When the archives of a church are old enough to have an historical value, they pass into the archives of the Patriarchate at the Phanar.

The secretary (*γραμματεὺς*) receives a small retribution out of the parish funds for the work he has to perform, and is himself selected from among the registered poor who are educated.

The resources of this committee consist, 1st, in the collections Revenues. made at church daily; 2nd, in those, more productive, which are made on great church solemnities, and on the innumerable saints' days, which in the Greek Church take up fully half the days in the year; 3rd, in the sale of candles, a very profitable source of revenue I am told, since an oka of candles can be bought for 35 piastres (70 pence) and be sold for 300 or even 400 piastres (600 or 800 pence), according to the nature and quality of the buyers, and the beadles and money collectors at a Greek church are not likely to belie the Greek reputation for sharpness; 4th, in a hand-to-hand collection made at the houses of all the orthodox inhabitants of the parish; and 5th, lastly, in a small sum granted by the Patriarchate to each parish, but which, being proportionate to the wants of a parish, is intended to benefit only the poorer parishes, for the richer parishes give more to the Patriarchate than they receive from it.

The daily collections at church are classified as follows, and the several objects for which they are made are always distinct from one another:—

1. For the church itself.
2. For the poor.
3. For hospitals.
4. For the debts of the church.
5. For the great poor school at the Phanar.

People can besides bequeath legacies to the committee of the several parishes, to be appropriated according to the will and desire of the testator.

But there is a last resource, which, I am informed, has been invaluable to the Church and the poor, though it is difficult to understand how the Church can derive benefit out of an increased expenditure.

Every parish has a rolling stock, which is made up of the sums which the poor come and deposit for a time, or even for ever, at an interest of 6 per cent., and which can be returned at call.

CONSTANTINOPLE.

In many instances these kinds of savings banks have found their rolling stock converted into permanent funds by the non-redemption of the sums confided to their keeping.

It would seem to be usual for a parish, when in debt, to make it known that certain sums are required, and to call upon the parishioners who cannot give to lend, at least, their money to the Church.

Poor schools.

The obligations of the vestry committee consist in providing,—

1. For the poor schools; and it will be gathered what interest attaches to these schools on the part of all Greeks, since no less than 1½ million of piastres, that is 12,500*l.*, is yearly collected in Constantinople alone for the education of the poor Greeks.

Foundlings.

2. For foundlings. There is no foundling hospital, but children abandoned by their parents are brought to the church, and are then, as it were, officially adopted by the vestry, who then entrust them to the care of another family in needy circumstances, and to whom they pay a small sum for the child's maintenance.

When the child is old enough to work, the vestry, acting as coumbaros, or godfather, to the child (a position which among the Greeks, and generally among all Christians in the East, gives the holder power over a child immediately after its own parents), reclaims it, and provides work for him or her. But in many instances the children themselves will not leave their adopted families.

Although I am assured that this system of palming off a foundling upon other poor families, even though they do receive a fixed monthly stipend for its care, has not proved unsatisfactory in its results, yet it may be questioned whether it is advisable to encourage unnatural parents in abandoning their children, confident that, by so doing, others will have to do their work for their maintenance, or to burden some deserving poor with additional care, because others have not had the moral courage to bear with their natural anxieties.

Mendicants.

3. For the relief of mendicants, who come and ask for temporary aid, either in kind or specie, and for the distribution of alms and food on great occasions, such as Easter, Christmas, and on the feast of the Assumption of the Blessed Virgin.

Hospitals and other institutions.

4. For the hospital at Baloukli, Νοσοχομελον, the hospital for old men, Γηροχομελον, the orphanage, Ορφανοτροφειον, the lunatic asylum, Ορευοχομελον, and the great professional school, χεφάλαιον ἐργοστασίον.

I annex a report for the year 1869, which will show that the aggregate collection in support of the above last-named institutions amounted to 912,179 piastres, which, taking the 1*l.* at 120 piastres, considering the copper which these collections contain, equals about 7,602*l.*

It must, however, be noticed that all these institutions are dependencies of the same building, and form part of one great foundation, to which very considerable revenues in land are still attached, though, of course, they have much diminished, since Prince Couza's confiscation of Church property in the Principalities, and one of the most lucrative sources of which besides is to be found in the chapel of Baloukli, where innumerable pilgrims con-

gregate at all times to pray at the shrine of the miraculous fishes, the same that were being fried at the time of the taking of Constantinople !!

The accounts of this great hospital are audited with the general accounts of the Patriarchate, and here again the system of not allowing the clergy to have a hand in the distribution of moneys is visible, for all the members composing the great committee of the Phanar are wealthy Greek merchants, elected at the *χελλεύη* of the Phanar, and for whom it is a great honour to be selected for such a position.

As you will perceive from the report, the general receipts amounted to 1,031,059,33 piastres, or upwards of 8,600*l.*, while the expenses nearly equalled that sum; but a somewhat curious feature of the report is the statement that new establishments have been founded, thanks to 75,000 piastres, or 625*l.*, lent to the Phanar, or principal parish, by the means which I have explained above.

5. And, finally, the parish vestries have to provide for the payment to the Patriarchate of certain fixed sums which are assessed according to the number of orthodox habitations in a parish.

Such is the system, which can be said to have but one fault, that of discouraging work by a too liberal attention to the wants of the poor.

Whatever is wanting in this system which, naturally in the poorer parishes, cannot always meet all the requirements is supplemented by a number of societies, the most worthy of notice among which is, 1st, a society called "L'Ami du Travail," the friend of labour, which has a fund incessantly floating, inasmuch as the object of the society is to lend money without interest to poor people for the purchase of the instruments they require for work.

An annual ball and private subscriptions keep up the funds of this society, which has done a great deal of good.

2. A society of men for the purpose of visiting schools, and Other societies. seeing that the poor are being properly educated.

3. A society of ladies, established in the various districts of Pera, Galata, and Tatavla, for the purpose of visiting the poor and administering personally to their wants.

I annex a French translation of the report of the society of the ladies of Pera for the year 1870, with which I have been favoured by one of them, and which shows the nature and regulations of the society, while the good it does is proved by the resources they can command, viz., close upon 1,700*l.* in a year.

Without, however, reflecting upon the liberality of the Greek ladies as compared with catholic Perote ladies, I must call your attention to the very interesting report of the latter society for 1870, which shows that while the Greek ladies, during the unfortunate year of the Pera fire, contrived to save 4,089 piastres and add them to the 54,241 already in hand at the bank, and to spend 2,073 piastres in soap out of a total expenditure of 131,771, the Perote ladies had only 45 piastres in hand after expending 64,293 piastres upon the relief of 250 families.

CONSTANTINOPLE.

Sisters of charity.

Society of St. Vincent de Paul.

In the same volume with the preceding report are two reports upon the work done by the ladies of the Taxim and of Galata.

The sisters of charity have no less than seven houses in Constantinople, and administer to every want and to persons of every creed.

The Society of St. Vincent of Paul exists in several localities and does its customary good; but the reply to Lord Granville's circular, which will be sent from Paris, will necessarily speak at length of that admirable institution, which is the same throughout the world.

The Armenians follow the Greek system in so far as their hospital is the centre from which all the good comes and to which all the means go of doing good.

The Jews of Haskieui and of Balata administer to their own wants, but I have not been able to get at the system which they pursue, though I have heard of their great liberality towards the poor of their own religious denomination.

I must needs end by returning my thanks to M. Carathèodory, the vice-president of the municipality of Pera, for the kindness with which he has furnished me the means of drawing up the report which you entrusted to me.

I am, Sir,
Your most obedient humble servant,
HUBERT E. H. JERNINGHAM,
3rd Secretary.

BUCHAREST. REPORT on the SYSTEM of CHARITABLE RELIEF and the REPRESSION of MENDICITY in BUCHAREST, ordered by the Circular Despatch of the 20th November 1871, by J. GREEN.

Pauperism, properly so called, has no existence in these principalities. By the rural law of 1864 every peasant was created a landowner. Without any manufacturing industry, and where the peasant is thus favoured, the urban population of the poorer class naturally consists of those who are attracted to the towns through the advantages to be obtained by administering to the wants of the rich.

In Bucharest there are some mendicants, whom the police occasionally drive into the charitable institutions, from which they rapidly escape to renew their professional labours. They are rather favourites with the general public, as in all oriental countries; and although the nationalities on the banks of the lower Danube may think they are not Orientals, the frontier of western civilization, for good or for evil, is Vienna.

No doubt in Bucharest there are numerous persons who, in comparison with their neighbours, are badly off; but there is none of that squalid misery which is to be met with in the cities of western Europe. In confirmation of this it may be mentioned that a charitable society of ladies established a year ago by the Princess, and of which the meetings are held under the presidency

of Her Highness, has had the unusual difficulty to contend with, of not finding objects on which to expend its funds. The ladies of this society undertook to ascertain personally the condition of the applicants, and in most instances discovered that they were not of a class coming within the object of the society, that of relieving pressing distress ; their houses being comfortable, and sometimes with the luxury of a piano. Under these circumstances the present scope of the society has been limited this season to the distribution of firewood,—the great increase in the price of which has been a serious question to every one, and especially to the poorer classes. The absence of a fire in winter means the probability of being frozen to death.

The hospitals of Bucharest are numerous, and I have the authority of more than one English medical man, who has assisted them, for stating that they bear a favourable comparison with the principal hospitals of the continent. The relief afforded is invariably gratuitous.

The following is an extract from a report voluntarily placed before the Chamber of Deputies by the ephory of the hospitals of Bucharest :—

“ On the occasion of the presentation of the annual accounts for 1871 the ephory of the civil hospitals considers that it is not out of place to give a short account of this institution.

“ It was founded in the last century by the Ghica and Cantacuzene families, who endowed it out of their estates, and expressed in their wills the pious wish that the revenues should be applied to the relief of suffering humanity.

“ Various small donations to be combined with the principal ones, and applied to the same purpose, were subsequently bestowed on this institution by other charitable persons.

“ The revenues accruing from these sources are as follow :

“ 1,225,983 lei (49,040*l.*) from the estates of the Ghica family, including some small estates bequeathed by other persons.

“ 390,618 lei (15,624*l.*) from the estates of the Cantacuzene family.

“ 12,007 lei (480*l.*) by donations subsequently received from various individuals.

“ From these sums 226,297 lei (9,052*l.*) must be deducted for the land and mortmain taxes contributed to the State.

“ Conformably to the dispositions of the wills the ephory is to be administered by the descendants of the Ghica and Cantacuzene families who apply the revenues to beneficial purposes.

“ Laws have at various periods confirmed these rights and duties, such as the “ Réglement Organique,” the law of 1847, and that of 1864, fixing the privileges of this establishment, and recognizing its autonomy, thus guaranteeing its prosperity.

“ By virtue, therefore, of the testamentary stipulations and the above-mentioned laws, the ephory is administered by two descendants of the founders and one medical ephor. The results of this administration may be verified by its published reports.

“ Those of the year 1870 were as follows :—There were received

BUCHAREST. into the hospitals 11,359 patients, besides which 38,587 received advice and medicine gratuitously.

"Lei 379,827 (15,196L.) were applied to new buildings, alterations, and repairs. Schools were maintained, allowances granted to young men for completing their studies abroad, and assistance afforded to various persons without the means of living.

"Besides the above, with the limited subvention from the state of Lei 203,870 (8,155L.) 293 insane and infirm persons were maintained in the 'Marcuta Asylum,' and 254 orphan children in the 'Helena Asylum.' Moreover nurses were provided for 471 children."

The Brancovans Hospital at Bucharest is not under the control of the ephory, but is managed by a council, of which the Metropolitan of Roumania is the President.

It was instituted in 1837 by the Brancovano family, and is endowed with considerable revenues. It makes up 215 beds, to which 100 more beds can be added when necessary.

According to the latest official report published on the subject, the hospitals of the two principalities (of which the total population is four millions and a half) gave the following results in 1868 :—

	Patients admitted in 1868.	Died.	In Hospital 1st January 1868.
Government Hospitals—			
In the provinces - - -	7,529	298	426
Penitentiaries - - -	4,799	271	128
Military - - -	9,921	250	451
Hospitals under direction of ephory of Jassy - - -	10,402	573	671
Hospitals under direction of ephory of Bucharest - - -	12,743	859	893
Hospitals under communal direction - - -	8,486	228	163
Hospitals under private direction - - -	4,693	213	255
Jewish Hospitals - - -	2,463	251	137
Total - - -	55,936	2,948	3,144

I have preferred furnishing in this form a sketch of the principal charities existing here, to replying seriatim to the printed queries of the Society for Organizing Charitable Relief, in a manner which would most probably mislead, and could not supply any useful suggestion.

Bucharest, February 24, 1872.

J. GREEN.

Poor Laws in Foreign Co
REPORTS

COMMUNICATED TO THE

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

BY

HER MAJESTY'S SECRETARY OF STA
FOREIGN AFFAIRS;

WITH

INTRODUCTORY REMARK

BY

ANDREW DOYLE, Esq.,
LOCAL GOVERNMENT INSPECTOR

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her M



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